



HISTORY

OF

THE WORLD

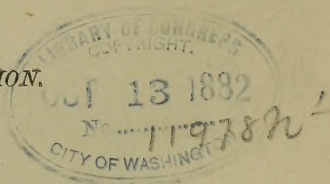
FROM THE EARLIEST PERIOD
TO THE PRESENT TIME

FOR SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES

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BY
JOHN MACCARTHY.

SECOND EDITION.

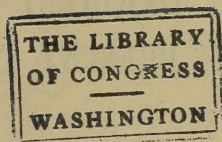


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PREFACE.

THIS text-book is prepared with a view of grouping and presenting in a clear and comprehensive form the chief events in the history of all the peoples who have played or are playing an important part in the world. It takes in the ancient races from the creation of man down : Egypt ; the Assyrian and Babylonian Empires ; the Jews ; Media and Persia ; Phœnicia and Carthage ; Greece and the empire of Alexander ; the Roman Republic and Empire ; the disruption of that empire and the slow formation of the Christian states ; the great mediæval period with its wonderful movements ; and the modern period, dating from the Protestant Reformation down to the present day. This covers the whole map of human history ; and students are thus enabled to gain in a single volume a general and, it is to be hoped, a sound and intelligent view of the history of the world into which they are born. The book has been prepared especially to meet the wants of those who, from whatever cause, are prevented from devoting sufficient time to the study of special epochs, or special races and peoples, in

history. In a work of this kind two difficulties present themselves: one is to fasten on the chief events and personages in the history of each people and give them due prominence; the other to construct an interesting and continuous narrative out of what is necessarily but the skeleton of history. These difficulties it has been the writer's aim to overcome. The questions at the foot of the page will be found of equal benefit to both teacher and pupil.

JOHN MACCARTHY.

NEW YORK, July, 1882.

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HISTORY OF THE WORLD.

ANCIENT HISTORY.

CHAPTER I.

EGYPT.

THE history of Egypt, from the formation of the empire to its subjugation by the Persians, divides itself into three periods: 1. The *Ancient Empire*, which was marked by the building of the Pyramids; and the *Middle Empire*, which was destroyed by the invasion of the Hyksos, or Shepherd-kings. 2. The *New Empire*, founded by the kings of the eighteenth and nineteenth dynasties. 3. The decline of the New Empire, from the end of the fourteenth century B.C. to the conquest of Egypt by Cambyzes, King of the Persians, B.C. 525. There were twenty-six dynasties in all.

SECTION I. Ancient Empire.

1. **Memphis.**—After the dispersion of mankind Misraim, son of Cham, peopled Egypt, which was called the land of Misraim and stretched along the fertile banks of the river Nile. But the founder of the Egyptian monarchy was Menes, a descendant of Misraim. Menes was the first to check the waters of the Nile, on whose annual overflow the land depends for its fruitfulness, there being little rain in Egypt. He dug a new bed for the river, whose waters wasted themselves on the Libyan sands. On the left bank, near the delta of the Nile, he built a city which he named Memphis, or “the good residence.” This was Egypt’s first capital.

State divisions of history of Egypt. How many dynasties were there? 1. Where does Egypt lie? Who founded the Egyptian monarchy? For what is he famous? What was Egypt’s first capital?

2. The Pyramids.—The people grew in numbers and in wealth, and Egypt in time extended from the Libyan deserts to Mount Sinai and became a great power. Evidences of this power and of the wealth and resources of the country, as well as of the genius of her rulers, remain to this day. The construction of the Pyramids, which have withstood all the tests of time, proclaims a wonderful people. These were vast symmetrical monuments, unequalled for size and completeness of structure, which were intended to be the last resting-place of the kings. The largest of them is attributed to Cheops, a king of the fourth dynasty.

3. Lake Mœris.—Egypt depended for its crops and harvests on the overflow of the Nile. But to render the country fertile the overflow had only to reach a certain height. Above or below this was equally disastrous. To secure this level King Mœris had a deep lake dug about ten leagues in circumference. This served as a reservoir which received the waters of the river when they rose too high, and replenished them when they fell too low. The lake fisheries became a source of revenue, and on the shores were built palaces and pleasure-houses.

4. End of the Ancient Empire.—King Mœris was a great monarch, and the records that remain testify to the splendor of his reign. He was equally successful in commerce and in war. The power of his arms extended to Ethiopia, while he established trade with Asia by the Red Sea. Records attest a high degree of civilization and luxury among the Egyptians at this time. But luxury and riches brought their curse. So rich a prize as Egypt became an object of ambition. Rival competitors for the throne sprang up in the sixth dynasty.

5. The last of the kings of this dynasty was slain by an

2. What were the Pyramids? 3. On what did Egypt depend for its harvests? Why was Lake Mœris constructed? 4. How far did King Mœris' power extend? Why did ancient Egypt decline?

assassin. His sister, Nitocris, famed for her wisdom and her beauty, assumed the government and held it for twelve years, during which time she completed the third great Pyramid. Her reign was beneficent, but ended disastrously. She treacherously put to death the men implicated in the death of her brother. Their partisans revolted, and Nitocris perished in the revolt.

6. Thebes.—Anarchy ensued, and in the midst of it one of the contending princes founded Thebes and made it the capital of Upper Egypt, or the Thebaid. In the eleventh dynasty the king of Thebes established his sway over all the country, and Thebes then became the capital of Egypt. It was made one of the most magnificent cities that the world has known, and its hundred gates have been celebrated by Homer. At Thebes, it is believed, the true God was worshipped under the name of *Ammon*, or “the Invisible.” He was adored as the “Lord of eternity,” the “great God dwelling in truth,” and Thebes was “the holy city of Ammon.” But the holy city soon gave itself up to corruption and the pagan worship of the stars and of animals, and so became the centre of idolatry.

7. Egypt under the Middle Empire.—With the twelfth dynasty Egypt recovered all the territory and power it had lost during the civil wars. New conquests were added in Ethiopia, and the masterpieces of Egyptian art were produced during the prosperous reigns of these princes. The most famous is known as the Labyrinth, founded by King Amenehme III. This structure was a series of twelve magnificent palaces, each distinct in itself yet communicating with the others.

8. The Hyksos.—Wealth and luxury begot corruption, and corruption begot dissension. Egypt was again given up to

5. Who was Nitocris? What was her end? 6. Give origin of foundation of Thebes. What was the worship at Thebes? 7. For what is the twelfth dynasty famed? What was the Labyrinth?

civil strife and the state dismembered. Under the thirteenth dynasty it was invaded by the Hyksos, hardy shepherd chieftains from Syria and the neighboring states. These nomads poured into the country, defeated the reigning princes, destroyed cities, overthrew temples and gods, and wrought all the evil accompanying a barbaric invasion. They then seized the country for themselves, and remained masters of it for about three centuries. They inhabited the lower valley of the Nile and levied tribute from the rest of the country. Their last king, Apophis, raised Joseph to the position of his chief minister of state.

SECTION II. New Empire: Kings of the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Dynasties; Thoutmosis III. and Ramses II.

9. Expulsion of the Hyksos.—About the year 1700 B.C. Amosis, King of Thebes, expelled the Hyksos and became the head of the eighteenth dynasty and founder of a new empire. The Hyksos migrated to Arabia, Phœnicia, and the country afterwards known as Palestine. King Thoutmosis I. laid Syria under tribute, subjugated Ethiopia, and extended his conquests to Mesopotamia.

10. Thoutmosis III.—His second son, Thoutmosis III., became the greatest of Egyptian conquerors. A minor on ascending the throne, the country was wisely governed by his eldest sister, Hatason. At her death the Syrians and Chanaanites revolted, but were defeated by Thoutmosis at Mageddo, in Palestine. Thence the young conqueror marched into the interior of Asia and laid tribute on the kings of Ninive and Babylon. Armenia and Arabia fell under the yoke; and his vessels, manned by Phœnicians, conquered the coasts of Asia Minor and Greece, the isles of Cyprus and Crete, and opened the way for the acquisition

8. Who were the Hyksos and what did they accomplish? How long did they remain masters of Egypt? What of their last king? 9. By whom were the Hyksos expelled? 10. Give history of Thoutmosis III.

of the African coast to Algeria. Thus Egypt became mistress of the world as then known.

11. Amenophis III., Ramses II.—This vast empire lasted till the reign of Amenophis III., the third successor of the great Thoutmosis. Amenophis was more celebrated for the number and magnificence of the monuments he had erected than for military exploits. After him the power of Egypt waned, but was revived under Ramses, the head of the nineteenth dynasty. Sethos, his son, regained all the conquests of Thoutmosis III. But the glory of the father was eclipsed by that of the son, Ramses II., celebrated in history as Sesostris.

12. Sesostris.—Sesostris secured the conquests of his predecessors. His title to fame rests chiefly on the number and magnificence of the monuments he caused to be erected in the valley of the Nile. In this he surpassed all the Pharaos. The city of Thebes was especially enriched by him.

13. According to the Greek writers he was a great law-giver as well as a great conqueror. But the best laws of Egypt came before his time. Notwithstanding his magnificence, he seems to have been a harsh ruler and full of vain-glory. He is set down as that Pharaoh of the Bible who was so cruel to the Jews in their captivity. He reigned for sixty-five years.

14. End of the Nineteenth Dynasty.—At his death Sesostris left Egypt exhausted by his tyrannical exactions. The country was invaded on all sides. The Italians and Greeks entered Lower Egypt and ascended the Nile. Merenphtah, the son of Sesostris, fled before them; but the invasion was finally repulsed. Merenphtah collected at Pelusium “all the lepers and impure” of his kingdom to the number of

11. For what was Amenophis III. famed? For what Ramses I. and Sethos? 12-13. On what does the fame of Sesostris rest? 14. What occurred after the death of Sesostris?

80,000. They took up arms and were reinforced by hordes from Asia. War raged in Egypt for thirteen years, during which Merenptah disappeared. His son came back from Ethiopia, where he had been a fugitive, and, assuming the title of Sethos II., claimed his inheritance. In the struggle for the throne the nineteenth dynasty ended miserably. It was the first chief persecutor of the Jewish people.

SECTION III. Decline of the New Empire: Ethiopian Kings (725-665 B.C.) and Saite Kings (665-525 B.C.); Conquest of Egypt by Cambyses (525 B.C.)

15. As the twentieth dynasty neared its close the valor of Ramses III. restored much of its glory and power to Egypt. He conquered the Libyans and Syrians, but his successors were not equal to their inheritance. The high-priest of Ammon usurped the chief military and civil authority, and about 1150 B.C. assumed the title of king. There was a rival dynasty at Tanis, in Lower Egypt. The high-priest sought the alliance of the Assyrian kings and to secure that renounced the right of sovereignty that for five centuries Egypt had exercised in Asia.

16. This weakening of Egypt allowed King David to enlarge his kingdom by conquest over the adjacent smaller states. Solomon became Pharaoh's son-in-law. The schism of the ten tribes divided the kingdom of Israel. The Pharaohs of Lower Egypt drove the descendants of the high-priest into Ethiopia. Jeroboam invited Seshai, master of all Egypt, to invade Juda (971). He entered Jerusalem and despoiled the Temple and the palace of Roboam.

17. **The Ethiopian Kings and the Assyrian Invasion (725-665).**—The high-priest's descendants established an independent kingdom in Ethiopia. One of them, Zerah, invaded Egypt and Juda, but was defeated. Anarchy still prevailed

15. What did Ramses III. achieve? State what occurred after his death. 16. What connection was there between Egypt and Israel? 17. How did the early invasions of Egypt come about?

in Egypt, and Sabacon, another Ethiopian, again invaded the country and subdued almost the whole of it. The Jews, threatened by the Assyrians, in spite of the warnings of the prophet Isaias, sought the alliance of the Egyptians. It was given, but did not prevent the ruin of the kingdom of Israel, nor the invasion of Egypt itself.

18. The Twelve Kings (665-650).—After a long period of anarchy twelve of the Egyptian chieftains agreed to reign in common. Their union lasted fifteen years. One of them, Psammeticus, was deposed. He fled, but, gaining the assistance of the Greeks, returned and deposed the others. He drove the Ethiopians from the Thebaid, became master of Egypt, and named his dynasty Saïs after his father. He was a powerful warrior, but a preference for his Greek allies gave such dissatisfaction to his own subjects that a large number of them emigrated to Ethiopia. His reign is rendered memorable by the siege of Azoth, a city of the Philistines, which it took him twenty-eight years to capture.

19. Nechao (616-600).—Nechao followed the warlike policy of his father. Josias, King of Juda, objected to the Egyptians passing his frontiers, and, rejecting the offer of friendship, gave battle at Mageddo, but was defeated and slain (610). Nechao took Jerusalem and laid tribute on Juda. He conquered Syria and advanced to the Euphrates, where he was met by Nabuchodonosor at Circesium, and in a single day lost all his conquests (604). He had striven unsuccessfully to increase Egyptian commerce by reopening the canal made by his father between the Nile and the Red Sea. The work cost the lives of one hundred and twenty thousand workmen, and was finally abandoned.

20. Psammis (600-594) and Apries (594-569); Usurpation of Amasis (569-526).—Nechao was succeeded by his

18. Give history of the twelve kings and of Psammeticus. What famous siege occurred during the reign of Psammeticus? 19. Give history of Nechao. What famous project did he attempt?

son Psammis, who, after an unsuccessful expedition into Ethiopia, left the crown to Apries, called Ophra in the Bible. Apries seized the city of Sidon, and foolishly defied Heaven to shake his throne. To avenge his grandfather's defeat at Circesium he offered the Jews his protection against Nabuchodonosor. Sedecias, the last king of Juda, accepted the offer. They were defeated, and the Babylonian enemy spent their fury on Sedecias and the city of Jerusalem (587).

21. Pharaoh, whose death had been predicted by the prophet Jeremias, fell a victim to a revolt of his own troops. Amasis, an officer of low birth, was chosen king by the rebels. He was a man of power and capacity, and became a wise ruler of the people. The favor he showed to the Greeks awoke the jealousy of the Egyptians, and an alliance he made with the enemies of Cyrus proved disastrous to his son.

22. Psammenitus (526-525); Conquest of Egypt by Cambyzes (525).—Cambyzes, son of Cyrus, invaded Egypt under pretence of this alliance with the enemies of the Persians. He defeated Psammenitus under the walls of Pelusium. The king fled to Memphis, but was made prisoner and put to death. Thus ended the most ancient and flourishing empire in the world.

SECTION IV. Religion, Government, Laws, Science, etc., of the Egyptians.

23. Religion of the Egyptians.—The Egyptians, being so near the cradle of the human race, shared in the primitive revelation and had a knowledge of the true God. With the gradual corruption of morals this knowledge became more and more confused and corrupt, and finally degenerated into idolatry. The sun was adored as the supreme being, and

20. What happened on the death of Nechao? 21. Who was Amasis? 22. Who was Cambyzes? How did the Egyptian Empire end? 23. What was the religion of the Egyptians?

the animals peculiar to the country were also worshipped as gods. The crocodile was sacred, and the bull Apis was especially honored and had magnificent temples erected to him. The Egyptians believed in the immortality of the soul; but this belief changed afterwards into the doctrine of metempsychosis, or the transmigration of the soul from one body into some other body after death. They revered the dead and embalmed their bodies. The bodies thus embalmed are called mummies.

24. The Government of Egypt.—The chief ruler was a king, who called himself the son of the sun, and who was worshipped as a god by his subjects, but who himself was compelled to observe rigorously the religious laws of the country. At his death the crown passed to the eldest of his sons, or, failing them, of his daughters, or, children failing, to his brothers and sisters. He was surrounded by a royal court. The country was divided into districts presided over by governors appointed by the king. The use of money was unknown; taxes were paid in kind, and commerce was carried on by exchange, or by ingots according to their weight.

25. The People.—In Egypt were two privileged classes, the priests and the warriors, each possessing a third of the soil. The third class consisted of the people, agriculturists or shepherds for the most part. There were also many skilled artisans—builders, weavers, and workers in the fine metals. The classes or *castes* were hereditary and could not be interchanged. What the father was the son was, soldier, priest, or shepherd. The priests were also the literary class, the men of science and of medicine. The priests, as was seen, grew to be so powerful as to overthrow the twentieth dynasty. The warriors lost their hold when two hundred

What did the Egyptians believe regarding the soul? 24. How was Egypt governed? 25. Describe the various *castes*. What were the special offices of the priesthood? What led to the decline of the warrior caste?

thousand of them revolted from Psammeticus and retired into Ethiopia.

26. Laws, Science, and Arts.—The laws of Egypt were devised with great wisdom, being founded chiefly on natural right and justice. The judges were chosen from the sacerdotal families. Truth was held in the highest veneration by all classes, and the punishment of perjury was death. The affairs of justice were transacted in writing, lest eloquence should sway the judgment. The Egyptians were eminent in natural science. They were great astronomers and geometricians; yet the machinery used in the construction of their vast monuments and buildings was of the simplest kind—the lever, the inclined plane, and the human arm.

27. Even from the earliest times their paintings and carvings showed wonderful delicacy and truth to nature. But the chief character of their art was the gigantic and majestic proportions of their statues and monuments. Their religion being symbolic, they cared little for mere form. Their writing was in hieroglyphic or sacred characters, with which their monuments are covered. The key to these inscriptions was lost, and through the ages they remained a mystery, until in 1822 J. F. Champollion, a French *savant*, hit upon it and revealed their secret to the world. There was also a cursive writing in use, called hieratic, which was an abbreviation of the hieroglyphic. It was written on the inner bark of the papyrus plant, whence the name of paper.

26. Describe the laws of Egypt. From what class were the judges chosen? For what were the Egyptians famous? 27. What was their manner of writing? Who discovered the secret of the hieroglyphs?

CHAPTER II.

ASSYRIA AND BABYLON.

THE history of Assyria and Babylon comprises two periods: the first from the foundation of Babylon and Ninive to the ruin of Ninive and the second Assyrian Empire (625 B.C.); the second from the Babylonian or Chaldean Empire to the taking of Babylon by Cyrus (625-538 B.C.)

**SECTION I. Babylon and Ninive: First Assyrian Empire (1314-789 B.C.);
Second Assyrian Empire (744-625 B.C.)**

1. Babylon and Ninive.—Babylon was founded by Nimrod, grandson of Cham, at the foot of the Tower of Babel, on the left bank of the river Euphrates. Nimrod was a mighty hunter and warrior. He had a rival in Assur, son of Sem, who built Ninive on the left bank of the Tigris. These cities were at first the capitals of two small, independent kingdoms, occupying the fertile basin between the two rivers. The country round about was probably divided up among a number of rival states constantly at war. Ninive became the ruler of Babylon, and Babylon in turn the ruler of Ninive, until finally the Chaldeans assumed sway over both, as well as over other cities bordering the Tigris and Euphrates. The Chaldean Empire lasted until the seventeenth century B.C., when it fell under the power of the Pharaos.

2. First Assyrian Empire (1314).—Under the successors of Sesostris the Egyptian sway waned, and the kings of Ninive extended their conquests towards the Euphrates. One of their number, Tiglath-samdan, founded the first Assyrian or Ninivite Empire (1314). He allowed the kings of Babylon to rule, provided they paid tribute. The Assyrian monarchs soon became independent of Egypt. Tig-

How is the history of Assyria and Babylon divided? 1. Where and by whom was Babylon founded? And Ninive? 2. Give history of Tiglath-samdan and Tiglath-pileser.

lath-pileser conquered the countries bordering on the Caspian and Euxine Seas, crossed the Euphrates, seized Circesium, and defeated the Hethians, who were of old enemies of Egypt. He aspired to the conquest of Western Asia, and succeeded in great measure; but a revolt in Babylon stopped his victorious career and resulted in the loss of all his conquests. At this time David founded his kingdom of Israel.

3. Sardanapalus III. (930-905); Salmanasar IV. (905-870).—After a century and a half of internal discord power was restored to the Assyrian Empire. Sardanapalus III. recovered all the conquests of Tiglath-pileser. To them he added Media. He was a cruel tyrant, who gloried in his cruelty. His son, Salmanasar IV., attacked Israel. He made thirty-one campaigns, which rendered him master of a great part of Asia. His empire extended from Persia to the Euxine Sea, from Oxus to the country of the Philistines. He died besieged in his own capital by a revolt led by one of his sons. He was succeeded by his elder son, and then by his grandson, Belochus III., who married the famous Semiramis. She enriched Babylon and constructed the dikes which preserved the lower plains of Mesopotamia from the inundations of the Euphrates.

4. Fall of the Assyrian Empire (789).—The accession of Sardanapalus V., a voluptuary, was the signal for renewed outbreaks in an empire that could only be kept in subjection by a strong hand. Arbaces, governor of the Medes, joined by Phul, prince of Babylon, and other chiefs, rose in revolt. Worsteds at first, they finally succeeded in shutting Sardanapalus up in Ninive, a city deemed impregnable. The siege lasted two years, when an overflow of the Tigris overthrew a league of the walls and opened the way into the

3. Who restored the Assyrian Empire? Describe Sardanapalus III. What of his son, Salmanasar IV.? Whom did Semiramis marry? 4. What was the character of Sardanapalus V.? How did Ninive fall?

city. The end had been foretold in prophecy, and Sardanapalus, recognizing the truth at last, had a vast funeral pyre erected in his palace, where, amid his wives and his treasures, he was consumed. The city was pillaged and given over to fire and sword.

5. Second Assyrian Empire (744-727).—Phul, surnamed *Belesis*, or “The Terrible,” made Assyria a dependency of Babylon. He made the king of Israel pay him tribute. The Assyrians revolted, and, after a long struggle, regained their independence. Then Tiglath-pileser II., father of Sardanapalus V., founded the second Assyrian Empire (744). He reconquered most of the inheritance of his ancestors. Achaz, the impious King of Juda, became his vassal, and gave over to him all the treasures of the Temple. Then the prophecies of Isaias and Amos were fulfilled: the kingdom of Damascus, or Syria, was destroyed; half the kingdom of Israel was occupied by the conqueror, and the other half compelled to pay a heavy tribute. He transferred the ten tribes of Israel to the interior of his own empire and supplanted them by his own subjects.

6. Salmanasar VI. (727-722); Sargon (721-704); Taking of Samaria (718).—Osee, King of Israel, despite the warnings of Isaias the prophet, formed an alliance with Egypt against the Assyrians. Salmanasar besieged Samaria, but died during the siege. Sargon, his general, usurped the crown, took Samaria, and sent the ten tribes captive to Assyria. Tobias, one of the exiles, gained the friendship of the king and used it to better their lot. A large number of strangers, transported from the shores of the Tigris to Samaria, mixed their pagan rites with the law of Moses and founded a new people, known as Samaritans.

5. What did Phul accomplish? Who founded the second Assyrian Empire? Describe the relations of Tiglath-pileser with the Jews. What became of the ten tribes of Israel? 6. For what is Sargon famous? Who were the Samaritans?

7. Sargon extended his rule from the Mediterranean shore to Cyprus. He conquered Babylon (709) and revenged on that city the sack of Ninive. He subjugated Asia from Cilicia to the frontiers of India, and boasted that he had forced three hundred and fifty kings to adore his god, Bel. He died by the hand of an assassin.

8. **Sennacherib (704-681).**—What Sargon had done for Israel, his son, Sennacherib, undertook to do for Juda. King Ezechias, with the aid of the Philistines and Egyptians, opposed him; but the allies were defeated and Juda was devastated. Terms were offered, but, Sennacherib proving implacable, God himself, according to the testimony of Isaias, took up the cause of Juda, and in a night one hundred and eighty thousand of the Assyrians perished. Sennacherib fled, and was afterwards slain by two of his sons.

9. **Assar-Haddon (681-667) and Sardanapalus VI. (667-647).**—The parricides fled to Armenia, and Assar-Haddon, the fourth son, ascended the throne. He took Sidon and Phœnicia and invaded Juda, then ruled by the wicked and idolatrous Manasses. Manasses was taken prisoner in Jerusalem and carried a captive to Babylon, but was afterwards restored on condition of his paying tribute. Assar-Haddon proved a successful but cruel conqueror, and added to his titles that of king of Egypt and Ethiopia. His son, Sardanapalus VI., was equally cruel and terrible in war. But the empire had grown too vast for one man to hold. He extended his conquests to the southern coast of Asia Minor, but his reign was one struggle to maintain authority in his own empire.

10. **Assourdan; Ruin of Ninive (625).**—Phraortes, proclaimed king of Media, drove out the Assyrians and added Persia to his new kingdom. He was defeated and slain by

7. How far did Sargon's sway extend? 8. Give the story of Sennacherib. 9. Describe the growth of the kingdom of Ninive under Assar-Haddon and Sardanapalus VI. 10. Who was Phraortes and what did he do?

Assourdan at Ragan (635). His son, Cyaxeres, took up the cause, and, repelling a Scythian invasion of Media, joined with Nabopolassar, governor of Babylon, in besieging Ninive. The city was fifty miles in circuit, and had a population of about two millions. It was a great, a beautiful, and a strong city, with massive walls and fortifications. It fell, however, and Assourdan slew himself in despair. Ninive was reduced to ruins.

SECTION II. Babylonian or Chaldean Empire (625-538 B.C.)

11. Nabopolassar (625-604); Nabuchodonosor the Great (604-561).—After destroying Ninive Nabopolassar founded the Babylonian or Chaldean Empire, which stretched from the Tigris to the Mediterranean. Nechao, King of Egypt, desiring to share in the spoils of the ruined empire, occupied the country of the Philistines and Syria (610). The king, now old, sent his son, Nabuchodonosor, against the Egyptians. He defeated Nechao at Circesium, and was pursuing him into Egypt when the news of his father's death made him hasten back to Babylon.

12. Ruin of the Kingdom of Juda (587).—The kingdom of Juda, set between the rival powers of Egypt and Babylon, was the prey of each in turn. It had paid tribute to Nechao. It had now to pay tribute to Nabuchodonosor. He threatened to besiege Jerusalem, and King Joachim was compelled to send him hostages from the noblest families. One of these was the prophet Daniel, at this time (602) quite a young man. Thus began the Babylonian captivity often foretold by Jeremias.

13. A revolt of the people of Juda brought Nabuchodonosor to Jerusalem. He seized the treasures of the Temple and the palace, dethroned Jechonias, and carried him cap-

How did Ninive fall? 11. Who founded the Chaldean Empire? 12. How did the Babylonian captivity begin? 13. Who carried it out and how? What was the fate of Jerusalem?

tive to Babylon, together with the prophet Ezechiel and a multitude of warriors and artisans (599). Sedecias, who succeeded Jechonias, made an alliance with the kings of Egypt, Tyre, Moab, and Idumea against Babylon. Nabuchodonosor marched on Jerusalem, which he took after a siege of two years. Sedecias, the last king of Juda, had his eyes plucked out and was sent chained to Babylon, as were all who had escaped the fury of the conqueror. The Temple was burnt to ashes, and the walls of Jerusalem razed to the ground (587).

14. Tyre was the next to fall under Nabuchodonosor's vengeance. The Tyrians resisted for thirteen years, but at length their city, with the king and its inhabitants, fell into his hands (574). After ravaging the countries that had revolted against him he returned, loaded with the riches of his conquests, to Babylon.

15. **Babylon.**—Babylon he made the most magnificent city of the world in those days. It was surrounded by two massive walls, one enclosing one hundred and twenty-eight square leagues, the other seventy-two. The outer wall was more than two hundred feet high, with enormous towers and gates, and defended by a large moat. Within the enclosures was the beautiful city, occupying both banks of the Euphrates. On the left bank was the royal city which Nimrod had founded, and here Nabuchodonosor built his wondrous palace. He also rebuilt the Tower of Babel, setting on it the inscription that men had built it after the Deluge, but had abandoned it because of the confusion of tongues. On the left bank of the river was the profane city, peopled chiefly with captives, where the Hebrews were allowed their judges and ancient customs.

16. **Nabuchodonosor's Chastisement.**—Nabuchodonosor, for

14. What became of Tyre? 15. Describe the city of Babylon. What remarkable inscription was set on the Tower of Babel? 16. Why was Nabuchodonosor punished? What was his punishment?

his pride and wickedness, fell under the chastisement of Heaven. For seven years he lost his reason and herded with the beasts of the field. His reason restored to him, he acknowledged God's greatness and humbled himself before his Creator. He then resumed his place and his power, and published an edict proclaiming the wonders that God had wrought on him. In the following year (561) he died.

17. Fall of Babylon (538).—After the death of the great monarch his empire soon showed signs of dissolution. His successors were unequal to the task of keeping together their inheritance, and Cyrus, at the head of the Medes and Persians, advanced against the city. The inhabitants from their lofty walls mocked at the besiegers. Cyrus by a canal turned off the Euphrates, which was Babylon's chief defence, and, entering by the dry bed of the river, surprised the city at dead of night, when, stupefied by a debauch, Balthassar, the king, was slain, and the prediction of Isaias regarding the fate of the city was fulfilled to the letter. Babylon was finally deserted and became a heap of ruins.

SECTION III. Religion, Government, etc.

18. Religion.—The Assyrians and Babylonians, like the Egyptians, had some knowledge of the Supreme Being. Like the Egyptians, also, they soon fell into idolatry. They confounded the Supreme Being with Assur, founder of Ninive; others with Bel, or Baal (Nimrod), the founder of Babylon. The sun, the moon, and other planets were worshipped by the Chaldeans, who attributed to them great influence over human affairs.

19. Government.—The kings of Ninive and Babylon called themselves the "vicegerents of the gods over the earth." They did not claim to be gods. Their power was as abso-

On the restoration of his reason what did he do? 17. Who conquered Babylon? Describe its fall. 18. What was the religion of the Assyrians and Babylonians? 19. Describe their government.

lute as in Egypt. Save the Chaldeans, there were no privileged classes or castes. The monarchs were liberal in the sense of choosing the best men to assist in the government, wherever they found them. Many of the Jews were thus exalted to high places—Daniel, for instance.

20. Sciences.—The chief sciences cultivated were mathematics and astronomy. The Babylonians were the first to divide the day into twenty-four hours, the hour into sixty minutes, and the minutes into sixty seconds. Pythagoras is supposed to owe to them his multiplication-table. They discerned the lunar and the solar year, and predicted the moon's eclipses, but not those of the sun. By astrology the Chaldeans claimed to forecast the future, and professed to heal by magic. The science of medicine was unknown.

21. Arts.—The architecture of the Assyrians is rich and ornate, as well as massive. All their buildings were of brick, baked or dried in the sun. They had the art of enamelling, and were wonderfully skilled in jewelled work, furniture, arms, wool tissues, linen robes, and carpets richly dyed and embroidered. Their highest intellectual art, however, is their cuneiform writing, so called from the wedge-like form of the characters. These were cut with a triangular stiletto on tablets of soft clay, which were baked when it was desired to preserve them. It is only within modern times that the secret of the characters has been discovered, and the discovery has resulted in confirming and explaining many passages in the Scriptures.

20. What were the chief sciences taught? What do we owe to the Babylonians? 21. What was the style of Assyrian architecture? Describe the occupations of the people. What of their writing?

CHAPTER III.

THE HEBREWS.

THE history of the Hebrews, or Jewish people, begins with the call of Abraham (1921 B.C.), and divides itself into clearly defined periods: 1. From the call of Abraham to the Exodus from Egypt under Moses and Josue (1921-1451). 2. From the Exodus to the establishment of royalty (1451-1095). 3. From the establishment of royalty to the separation of the kingdoms of Israel and Juda (1095-975). 4. From the separation to the Babylonian captivity (721-536). 5. From the Babylonian captivity to the Roman conquest of Judea (536-63).

1. Origin of the Hebrews.—To preserve the knowledge of the truth as first delivered to man, and to save the world from the complete darkness of idolatry and corruption, God raised up a special people. The father and founder of this people was Abraham, a descendant of Sem, who dwelt in Ur, a city of the Chaldees. The inhabitants of Ur were idolaters, and God, revealing Himself to Abraham in a vision, bade him leave the country (Mesopotamia) and go to a land which his descendants should possess (Chanaan).

2. Abraham in Chanaan.—Abraham obeyed the voice of God and passed over into Chanaan, or Palestine. There he lived a pastoral life, and became rich in flocks and herds. He worshipped the one God, creator of heaven and earth, and bound himself and his descendants to God by a solemn covenant, promising to walk before God in innocence. And God promised that in Abraham and his seed should all the nations of the earth be blessed. Abraham grew in power and in wealth, and made alliance with the neighboring princes. On his death, near Hebron, he left the leadership and patriarchate to Isaac, his son by his wife Sara. Another son, Ismael, whose mother was Agar, an Egyp-

How is the history of the Hebrew people divided? 1. What was their mission? Who was the founder of the race? What was God's command to Abraham? 2. Describe Abraham's life in Chanaan. What covenant did he make with God?

tian, settled in Arabia, and from him the Arabs claim descent. To Isaac succeeded Jacob (afterwards called Israel, hence the name Israelites). Jacob had twelve sons, who became the chiefs and founders of the twelve tribes of Israel.

3. The Israelites in Egypt.—Of these sons Jacob most loved Joseph. This favoritism excited the envy of the others, and they sold Joseph to an Egyptian as a slave. The boy was carried into Egypt, and there rose in time to be chief minister of the realm under one of the Pharaos. Joseph brought over the whole family of his father into Egypt, and they were allowed to settle in the land of Goshen, where they pursued their pastoral life. When Joseph died the Hebrews, who had greatly multiplied, were reduced to slavery, and continued in that degraded condition, maintaining their traditions and the knowledge and worship of the true God, until the rise of Moses, a descendant of Levi, the third son of Jacob.

4. The Exodus.—Moses, by a cruel decree of Pharaoh, was, with all the other new-born males of the Israelites, condemned to perish in the Nile. Saved by his mother and sister, Miriam, he was adopted by a daughter of the Pharaoh, and educated as a prince. But he retained the feelings and religion of his race. Compelled to fly from Egypt for slaying an Egyptian who struck a Hebrew, he took refuge in Madian, where he married the daughter of Jethro, the prince of the land. Returning later to Egypt with his brother, Aaron, he prevailed upon the Pharaoh to allow the Israelites to depart, but not before the country had been scourged by a series of awful visitations. This departure is known as the Exodus.

5. The Ten Commandments.—Moses led them across the

What patriarch succeeded Abraham? Who was Ismael? Who founded the twelve tribes of Israel? 3. How came the Israelites in Egypt? What was their lot there? 4. Who was Moses? Describe the Exodus.

Red Sea, and the Pharaoh, pursuing them, perished in the passage with his army. Crossing the desert, they arrived at Mount Sinai and encamped at the foot. On Mount Sinai Moses received the commandments of God to his people and delivered them to the children of Israel. They were ten in number, and form the most sublime law ever given to man. They cover every moral and legal obligation, and lay down the law of monotheism.

6. The Israelites in Chanaan.—The Israelites often fell away from this great moral code, but never without entailing upon themselves punishment and disaster. On the death of Moses, Josue succeeded to the leadership and conducted the tribes across the Jordan into Chanaan, which he conquered. There they settled down under the rule of Judges, the government being a sort of republican federation. They had constant quarrels with their neighbors, but sometimes gave way to the idolatry and corruption that surrounded them.

7. Establishment of the Monarchy.—There was an almost constant succession of anarchy and civil strife under the Judges, and the people, desiring a centralized power and strong ruler over all, asked for a king like the nations around them. Saul was chosen first king of Israel. He gained many victories over the neighboring peoples, but, growing jealous of the prowess of David, his son-in-law, spent the later years of his reign in pursuing him. Defeated in battle by the Philistines, and three of his sons falling, he slew himself.

8. David and Solomon.—On the death of Saul, David was proclaimed king by his own tribe of Juda, but a son of Saul was accepted by all the other tribes. A bloody civil strife was the result, David finally conquering and making

5. How were the Ten Commandments given to the people? What was their essence? 6. Who succeeded Moses in command? Describe the government of the Judges. 7. How was monarchy established in Israel? Give the story of Saul.

Jerusalem his capital. He became a strong ruler and conqueror, and greatly extended his domain. He was succeeded by his son, Solomon, during whose long and illustrious reign the kingdom of Israel reached the height of its glory and power. He built a magnificent temple and palace in Jerusalem, and the fame of his wisdom spread to all lands. Riches and luxury entered in and wrought corruption among the people, Solomon himself giving the example.

9. Separation of the Tribes.—On his death the people demanded reform. It was refused by Rehoboam, son and successor of Solomon. The result was a secession of ten tribes, who chose Jeroboam for king, leaving only Juda and Benjamin to Rehoboam. And thus the kingdom of Israel became divided into the two kingdoms of Israel and Juda, the latter remaining loyal to the house of David.

10. Fall of Israel.—The kingdom of Israel speedily fell into corruption and idolatry. It lasted through two hundred and fifty years of constant struggle and disturbance. It finally became a tributary of Assyria under Phul. Tiglath-pileser transported many of the inhabitants to Assyria, and its power was finally broken by Salmanasar, who destroyed the capital, Samaria (721), and scattered the Israelites among the provinces of his empire, where they were gradually absorbed and lost in the population.

11. The Babylonian Captivity.—Juda, preserving the religion of its fathers, lasted longer. But it also fell a prey to corruption, civil strife, and at times to idolatry. To save his kingdom Achaz called in Tiglath-pileser, and made himself a tributary of the Assyrian monarch. Idolatry was introduced. There were various attempts at reform, but the state gradually grew weaker and corruption stronger. It lay between the rival powers of Egypt and Babylon, and

8. Who succeeded Saul? Describe David's reign. For what was Solomon famed? 9. What occasioned the division in Israel? 10. What was the fate of the kingdom of Israel? 11. What was the fate of the kingdom of Juda?

finally fell to Nabuchodonosor, who took Jerusalem and carried away thousands of the chief inhabitants captive to Babylon.

12. A revolt in Juda brought Nabuchodonosor back (588), and Jerusalem was again taken. The king, Sedecias, had his eyes put out and was sent a prisoner to Babylon. The temple was plundered and burned, and the walls and palaces of the city were destroyed. All the chief citizens were now carried off into captivity, and the Jewish people was soon after dispersed.

13. **Judea under foreign Domination.**—The Jews remained in captivity in Babylon until the destruction of that city and empire by Cyrus (538). Suffering restored many of their virtues, and Cyrus allowed them to return to their own land. A new temple was built (515) and Jerusalem was gradually restored. Judea remained a tributary of Persia until the empire fell under Alexander the Great, who himself visited the holy city of the Jews. After Alexander's death Judea became a province of his successors in Egypt and Syria. Greek letters, science, philosophy, and refinement came in, and with these scepticism among the wealthier and more learned classes of the Jews. With the ascendancy of Rome they passed under the power of the Romans, and Judea became a Roman province. Such it remained down to the birth of Christ. A final revolt against Rome led to the utter destruction of Jerusalem by Titus (A.D. 70) and the dispersion of the Jewish people.

12. What was Nabuchodonosor's treatment of the Jews? 13. Who freed the Jews from captivity? What was the subsequent fate of Judea? What led to the destruction of Jerusalem?

CHAPTER IV.

MEDIA AND PERSIA.

THE history of Media and Persia is divided into two periods: 1. From the remotest times to the death of Cyrus (529 B.C.) 2. From the death of Cyrus to the beginning of the Median wars (529-500 B.C.)

SECTION I. Origin of the Medes and Persians: Early Government; Conquest and Empire of Cyrus (559-529 B.C.)

1. Dejoces (710-657).—The Medes sprang from Madai, the son of Japheth. Japheth's descendants called themselves Aryans—meaning “noble” or “excellent.” They occupied Bactriana and the vicinity. The Medes were divided into two classes: the *Magi*, or “great ones,” and the warriors. The earlier inhabitants of the country subjugated by the Medes are supposed to have formed the inferior classes. In the tenth century Media became a tributary of Assyria. Arbaces restored its independence (789). It was not till 710 that the tribes combined under one head, Dejoces, whom they chose for king. He built Ecbatana, the capital, and his rule was wise and firm.

2. Conquest of Persia (650); Phraortes (657-635); Cyaxares I. (635-595).—The Persians, a neighboring people, were also descended from Japheth. They comprised ten tribes, divided into three classes: the warriors, agriculturists, and nomads. The tribes were leagued under a head chief. Achemenes, the chief, was attacked and reduced to vassalage by Phraortes, son and successor of Dejoces. Phraortes also conquered Parthia, Bactriana, and all Central Asia. His son, Cyaxares, avenged his father's death in battle with the Ninivites by destroying the second Assy-

How is the history of Media and Persia divided? 1. Who were the Medes? Describe their divisions. Who was their first king? 2. Describe the Persians and their relations with the Medes. By whom were they conquered?

rian Empire (625). His empire stretched from the left bank of the Tigris to the interior of Armenia, held by the Lydians.

3. These were the descendants of Lud, son of Sem, and were a brave and warlike people. Phrygia and Cappadocia were in their hands, as also Troy and other cities of Ionia. Alyattes, their king, made a stubborn fight against Cyaxares, and the war ended at the battle of the "Eclipse." An eclipse of the sun so terrified both sides that they ceased fighting and concluded peace (595). Alyattes ceded part of Cappadocia and gave his daughter in marriage to Astyages, son of Cyaxares.

4. **Astyages (595-559).**—Astyages was a peaceful monarch. He married his daughter to Cambyses, grandson of Achemenes. From this wedding was born Cyrus, afterwards the Great. The education of the young Cyrus was of the most careful kind, and his natural capabilities were of the best. He became while still young a great general and had all the qualities of a wise ruler. He marched against the Assyrians, the foes of the Medes, and beat them with great slaughter, killing their king. After further conquests he returned to Media and married the daughter of Cyaxares II., whose dowry was Media.

5. **Crœsus; Battle of Thymbra (544).**—About the middle of the fourth century B.C. there were four great powers in the East—Media, the Babylonian Empire, Lydia, and Egypt. Cyrus had the ambition to conquer all and convert them into one power. Crœsus, King of Lydia, formed a league with the kings of Egypt and Babylon. He was a very able and wealthy monarch, with nearly all Asia Minor under his control. Determined to stay the advance of Cyrus towards the Caucasus, he crossed the Halys and gave

2. For what is Cyaxares famous? 3. Who were the Lydians? How was peace effected with Astyages? 4. Who was Cyrus? 5. What were the four great Eastern powers at this time? What was Cyrus's ambition?

battle. The campaign was indecisive, and he retreated towards Thymbra.

6. Here Cyrus, at the head of two hundred thousand men and three hundred chariots armed with scythes, gave battle. Crœsus had twice as many soldiers, but the skill and impetuosity of the youthful general achieved an easy victory. Cyrus marched at once on Sardis, the capital of Lydia. Defeating Crœsus a second time, the capital and person of the king fell into his hands. He proved as wise a conqueror as he was brave a general. He kept Crœsus by him and always consulted him. With the fall of Sardis the whole of Asia Minor fell into his hands. The Phocians, rather than yield, set sail with their families and took refuge in Marseilles, which their ancestors had founded.

7. **Capture of Babylon (538).**—The king of Babylon, having lost his allies, was now besieged in his capital. The result of the siege was the destruction of the Babylonian Empire. Entering Babylon, Cyrus put an end to the Jewish captivity, and published an edict inviting the Jews back to their own country, and announcing his intention to erect a temple to the true God in Jerusalem. The end of this great man's reign was peaceful.

SECTION II. Cambyzes (529-522 B.C.); Smerdis (522-521 B.C.); Darius I. (521-500 B.C.); Institutions and Customs of the Medes and Persians.

8. **Cambyzes.**—Cambyzes, eldest son of Cyrus, ascended the throne on the death of his father. He had his father's ambition, but not his virtues or capacity. He set out to conquer Ethiopia. The expedition cost him half his army. He was cruel and capricious in his government. In a fit of fury he slew his brother Smerdis, and then his sister for bewailing the loss. A magian named Smerdis, closely re-

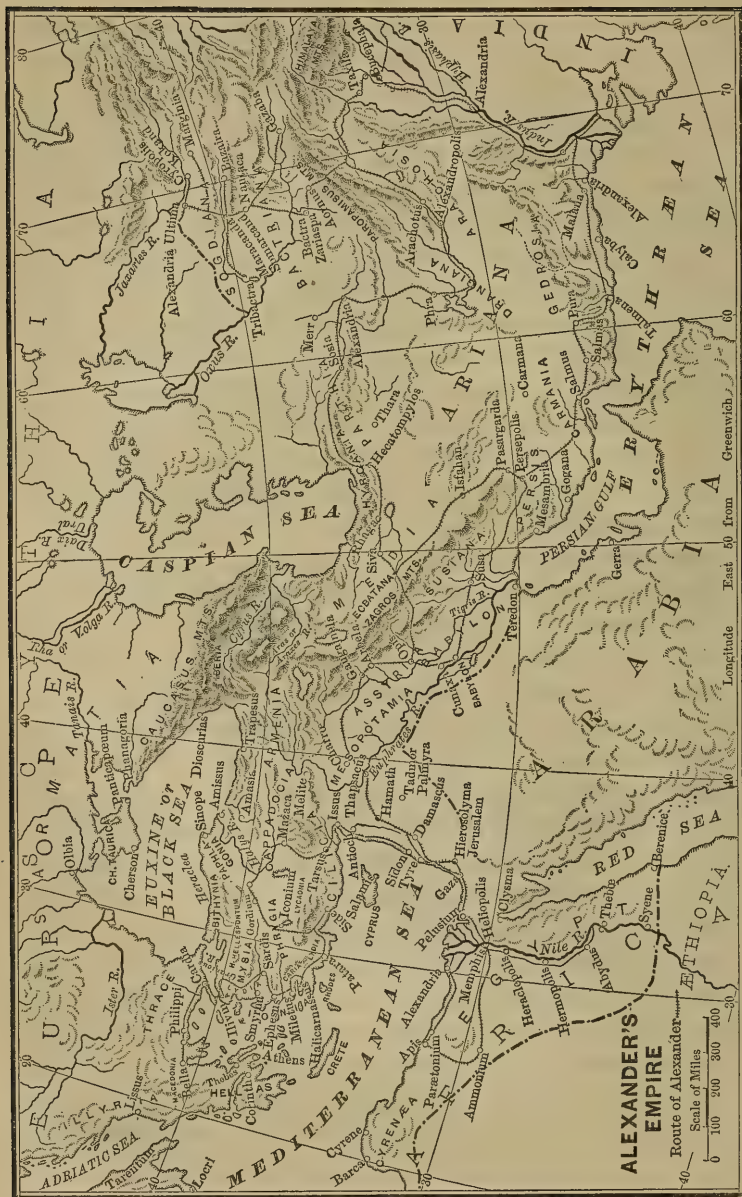
6. Describe the battle of Thymbra. How did Cyrus treat Crœsus? 7. What was the edict of Cyrus? 8. Who succeeded Cyrus? Describe the reign of Cambyzes. What of his death and of Smerdis?

sembling the prince, assumed the title and had himself proclaimed king as the son and successor of Cyrus. Cambyzes met with an accidental death while marching against the usurper (522).

9. Darius.—Smerdis secured the crown, but was de-throned and slain by a conspiracy of the nobles under Darius, son of Hystaspes. Darius was then proclaimed king. He belonged to an illustrious family. He had from the outset to contend against many revolts. The most formidable was that of Babylon, which it took him over twenty months to subdue, and the city was only taken by treachery on the part of Zopyrus, one of Darius' nobles. Zopyrus was made governor of Babylon. Darius about this time confirmed the edict of Cyrus in favor of the Jews, and the Temple of Jerusalem was solemnly dedicated by Zorobabel (515).

10. Darius and the Scythians (508-506).—Darius thought to conquer Europe. He first marched against the Scythians, a hardy nomad race, who inhabited the country between the Danube and the Tanaïs. He left Susa with an army of six hundred thousand men, and crossed the Thracian Bosphorus and the Danube on a bridge of boats. The Scythians retreated before him, filling up the wells and destroying the forage. The army of Darius began to suffer from famine, while they followed an ever-flying enemy into a land of desolation. At length they were compelled to retreat, pursued in turn by the Scythians, and it was only with the greatest difficulty that Darius succeeded in placing the Danube between the remnants of his army and their relentless pursuers. To wipe out his disgrace he left Megabyzus, his lieutenant, with eighty thousand men, in Europe. Megabyzus imposed tribute on Macedonia,

9. What became of Smerdis? What of the revolt of Babylon? How did Darius treat the Jews? 10. Describe the campaign of Darius against the Scythians. What did Megabyzus accomplish?



subjugated Thrace, and occupied Byzantium, on the Bosphorus.

11. The Persian Empire under Darius.—When Darius declared war against the Greeks his empire extended to Europe, and comprised : in Africa, Egypt, with Libya and Cyrenaica ; in Asia, all the countries beyond the Indus and Jaxartes. There had never before been so vast an empire. Susa, the central city, was his capital. Susa and Persepolis (the latter intended as the royal burial-place) were adorned with magnificent marble palaces. The empire was divided into twenty satrapies, which were taxed in proportion. The tax, though fixed with great moderation, made Darius odious to his subjects. They called him Merchant where they called Cambyzes Master.

12. Religion, Government, etc.—The founder of the Persian religion was Zoroaster, a legislator and conqueror, who lived about 2000 B.C. His religion had a likeness to the truth, but was greatly mixed with error. The conflict between good and evil in the world he attributed to the conflict between *Ahriman*, the god of evil, and *Ormuzd*, the god of good. Ormuzd was represented by light, fire, and, above all, by the rising sun. The conflict was to end at the end of the world, when a greater god than either would intervene. Then Ahriman, with his associate evil spirits, would be cast into an eternal prison ; and Ormuzd, with his disciples, rewarded by eternal happiness. The bodies of the dead were buried. Their priests were termed *magi*, and they had also a learned and philosophic class.

13. The monarch had supreme power. He was “the great king,” “the king of kings.” His palace was called the “Gate,” as it is to-day among the Turks. He had a council of ministers to assist him in governing. Each sa-

11. What was the empire of Darius ? Name the capital. How was the empire divided ? 12. Who founded the Persian religion ? Describe that religion. 13. How was Persia governed ?

trapy, or province, was in the care of a satrap, whose powers were unlimited. Cyrus brought the military science of this naturally warlike race to a high degree of perfection.

CHAPTER V.

PHŒNICIA AND CARTHAGE.

SECTION I. Sidon and Tyre.

1. Sidon.—The Phœnicians were descended from Chanaan, the son of Cham. They occupied from early times the coast between the Mediterranean and the southern line of Lebanon. They became a seafaring and commercial people. Sidon was called “the city of fishermen,” and even in the time of Abraham enjoyed a flourishing commerce. For safety’s sake the Phœnicians became tributaries of their powerful neighbor, Egypt, in the seventeenth century B.C. In 1209 B.C. a Philistine fleet suddenly entered the port of Sidon and utterly destroyed the city.

2. Tyre.—Tyre then became the chief city of Phœnicia. The kings of Tyre were always the allies of the Jewish people. Hiram, one of their number, furnished Solomon with the workmen and materials needed for the construction of the Temple. Later on Jezabel, a Tyrian princess, married to Achab, King of Israel, induced him to renounce the worship of the true God. The destruction of Tyre by Nabuchodonosor (574 B.C.) induced her colonies to recognize the Babylonian supremacy.

3. Commerce and Colonies.—The Phœnicians discovered the art of navigation, and were the first to engage in maritime commerce. They established marts of trade and exchange,

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1. What was the character of the Phœnicians? What became of Sidon?
 2. What relations existed between Tyre and the Jews? Who was Jezabel? What was the fate of Tyre?

which soon developed into flourishing colonies. They had stations at Cyprus, Rhodes, and other islands of the Ægean Sea, and on the shores of the Euxine. The Mediterranean was the great highway of this busy people, and they ventured north as far as the isles of Britain, carrying intelligence and knowledge of the useful arts with them. They also carried on a land commerce extending all over Asia.

4. Arts and Religion.—The Phœnicians invented the art of making glass, and were skilled in the working of metals, carving ivory, painting vases, and making jewels. They are also credited with the invention of the alphabet and of writing, which they carried abroad into Greece and the other colonies. Their chief source of wealth was the beautiful purple dye, extracted from a shell-fish, which they applied to stuffs and adopted as their royal color. Their divinity was the Baal of the Assyrians, called also *Baal-Moloch*, or “sovereign destroyer,” because to him were immolated children of the noblest parentage by casting them into a burning brazier or shutting them up in a heated statue of the god. It was the duty of the mothers to look on at this terrible sacrifice with tearless eyes and unmoved countenance. The victim was supposed to be united with the being of the god.

SECTION II. Carthage.

5. Rise of Carthage.—Carthage, near the site of the modern Tunis, is supposed to have been founded (872 B.C.) by Elissa, better known as *Dido* (fugitive), the daughter of the King of Tyre, who was compelled to fly by her brother, Pygmalion. The “new city” speedily increased in population, wealth, power, and enterprise, until its marts were known all along the African shore of the Mediterranean. After the destruction of Tyre Carthage assumed the leader-

3. For what are the Phœnicians chiefly famed? Mention some of their colonies. 4. In what arts were they skilled? What inventions are attributed to them? 5. What city succeeded Tyre in supremacy?

ship of the Phœnician colonies. She increased the number of her soldiers and vessels of war, and gave birth to men of military genius. This made her a great power.

6. War in Sicily (480).—Hamilcar, one of her generals, landed in Sicily with an army of three hundred thousand men, and laid siege to Himera. He was defeated by the strategy of Gelon, the ruler of Syracuse, whom the Sicilians called in to their aid. Hamilcar was slain and his fleet fired. The battle took place on the same day as the battle of Thermopylæ. The Carthaginians sued for peace, which they obtained at the costs of the war and the promise to sacrifice no more human victims to their divinities.

7. Destruction of Himera (410) and Agrigentum (406).—Sicily continued to suffer internally, and now one, now another foreign aid was called in. The Carthaginians again found pretext to enter under the command of Hannibal, grandson of Hamilcar. Hannibal laid siege to the city before which his grandfather was killed, took it, and razed it to the foundations. He then besieged Agrigentum, a rich and powerful city, which fell after a siege of eight months, and yielded a great booty to the captors.

8. Dionysius the Elder (405-368); Himilco.—Dionysius the Elder, “tyrant” or ruler of Syracuse, waged an unsuccessful contest against the Carthaginians, and was compelled to sign a disadvantageous peace. He made immense preparations for another struggle, and fell treacherously on the Carthaginians in Sicily. Himilco, who had taken Agrigentum, again entered the island at the head of a formidable army, and recaptured all the cities that Dionysius had taken, shutting the latter up in his own capital. Himilco took a cruel revenge; but his army was attacked with pestilence while besieging Syracuse. Dionysius took courage

6. Describe the expedition of Hamilcar. The result? 7. Give an account of Hannibal's exploits in Sicily. 8. Describe the war with Dionysius the Elder. What befell Himilco?

from this, and Himilco stole back to Carthage with a bare remnant of his forces. In his despair he killed himself.

9. Timoleon's Successes (345-343).—The death of Dionysius the Elder was the signal for civil strife in Syracuse. Dionysius, his son, driven from the city, re-entered it by force and committed great barbarities. The Carthaginians again landed under Mago. The people of Syracuse appealed to Corinth, who sent them Timoleon with only a thousand men. But he was a skilled general and his troops were veterans. Mago was beaten off and condemned to death for his failure. A larger fleet was sent out. Timoleon, at the head of six thousand men, marched to meet seventy thousand Carthaginians, and his boldness and skill were rewarded by a complete victory. The Carthaginian camp and all its treasures fell into his hands. Concluding an honorable peace, he then retired into private life.

10. Agathocles (317-289); His African Campaigns (311-307).—Agathocles, a Sicilian of low birth, aided by the Carthaginians, seized the sovereignty of Syracuse soon after the death of Timoleon. Seeing Carthage weakened, he turned against it. An army landed and laid siege to Syracuse. To divert the attack he boldly carried the war into Africa. On landing in Africa, to inspire his troops with courage he burned the fleet that conveyed them thither, marched on Tunis, which he took by assault, and secured an immense booty. The Carthaginians, believing him to be shut up in his own capital, were filled with consternation. The hasty levies that they sent against him were cut in pieces. The Syracusans, hearing of his success, fell on the besieging force, surprised and destroyed them.

11. Agathocles returned to Sicily. Going back to Africa, he found the tide of success changed, and, deserting his

9. What followed the death of Dionysius the Elder? Who was Timoleon? What did he achieve? 10. Describe the campaign of Agathocles in Africa. 11. What became of Agathocles?

army, returned again to Syracuse. The soldiers revenged themselves by strangling his sons, and Agathocles himself perished miserably (289). The Carthaginian struggle in Sicily was afterwards continued with Pyrrhus, of Epirus, and the Romans. The *Punic wars* began in 264 B.C., and ended in 146 by the ruin of Carthage.

12. Carthaginian Life and Government.—The Carthaginians, notwithstanding their wealth, were austere even to cruelty in their mode of life. They were famed for ingenuity, enterprise, and treachery, on the testimony of Roman historians, who were their foes. *Punic faith* has thus passed into a byword. The military forces of Carthage were chiefly composed of mercenaries paid to fight her battles. Her government was republican in form, with two *suffetes*, or presiding magistrates, elected annually. Then came the *people*, or body of the state, who left the care of public affairs to the senate. The senate was the body that debated and decided on all important affairs of state. When the senate was divided in opinion appeal was made to the people for final decision; but when the senate was unanimous its decision was accepted. The people were happy under this rule, and rarely was there an instance of revolt in the five hundred years of their history.

With what great powers had the Carthaginians to contend? What wars ruined Carthage? 12. What was the character of the Carthaginians? How did they carry on wars? Describe their government.

CHAPTER VI.

GREECE.

THE history of Greece is divided into three periods: 1. The time anterior to the Median wars (2000-500 B.C.) 2. During the Median wars (500-449 B.C.) 3. The Peloponnesian war (449-360 B.C.)

SECTION I. Primitive Greece.

1. Origin of the Greeks.—The Greeks claimed to have been begotten of the soil on which they dwelt. They came, however, from the East and were descendants of Japheth. The Pelasgi first came, crossing over from Asia Minor (about 2000). They are said to have founded Sicyon and Mycenæ, the two most ancient cities of Greece. About 1600 B.C. came the Hellenes, whence the name Hellas. The early history is for the most part mythical. Cecrops, an Egyptian, is credited with giving the inhabitants of Attica a set form of government. Cadmus, a Phœnician, built the city of his name, and also the citadel of Thebes. He taught the people the alphabet and the art of writing. Danaus, an Egyptian, settled in Argos and introduced farming. Pelops, a Phrygian, conquered the southern part of the country, whence its name, Peloponnesus.

2. Heroic Age; Trojan War (1194-1184); Homer.—What is called the heroic age in Grecian history extends from the fourteenth to the twelfth century. It is mythical, filled with the exploits of demi-gods and heroes. Within this time, however, occurred the expedition of the *Argonauts* in the thirteenth century. They went to Colchis in search of the “golden fleece”—that is to say, in search of wealth. There was also the *War of the Seven Chiefs* under

How is the history of Greece divided? 1. Describe the origin and early history of the Greeks. 2. What is meant by the Grecian heroic age? What was the expedition of the Argonauts?

Adrastus, King of Argos, who strove to drive King Eteocles from Thebes and set his brother Polynices in his place. The *War of the Epigoni* was the result of this. The *Epigoni* were the sons of the chiefs slain before Thebes. They leagued together ten years later and took the city from the descendants of Cadmus. Finally came the Trojan war, celebrated in Homer, where the Greeks under Agamemnon, after a ten years' siege, took and destroyed that city. This siege first brought the Greeks together in concert.

3. The Dorians in the Peloponnesus.—"The return of the Heraclidæ," or descendants of Hercules, occurred twenty-four years after the siege of Troy. These were Peloponnesian exiles in Doris, who resolved on returning to their native soil. Under the lead of Aristodemus, and with the aid of the Dorians, they constructed a fleet, and, crossing the Gulf of Corinth, made a sudden descent on the Peloponnesian coast. The invasion was successful. Tisamenes, King of Sparta and Argos, withdrew with his people to Achaia. The Æolians emigrated to Asia Minor. The Ionians withdrew to Attica.

4. Sparta.—The Dorians established a double dynasty, called the Agidæ and the Proclidæ, descendants of the twin sons of Aristodemus, who himself perished in the invasion. Lycurgus, the fifth descendant of Procles, inherited the power by the death of his elder brother (898). He was a wise legislator and travelled abroad to gain knowledge from the enlightened men of the East. Returning to Sparta, he gave the people a constitution, assisted by the young king, Charilaüs, his nephew, whom he had educated. Making the people swear to be faithful to the constitution till his return, he for ever disappeared.

5. Constitution of Lycurgus.—The dual royalty was

Tell of the wars of the Seven Chiefs, of the Epigoni, and of the Trojan war.
3. Describe the return of the Heraclidæ. 4. Sketch the early history of Sparta.
Who was Lycurgus, and what did he do?

maintained. The kings were chief magistrates. They had command of the armies, were chief priests, and presided over the senate. The chief authority rested with the senate, composed of twenty-eight members elected for life by the assembly of the people, and no member less than sixty years of age. The assembly met every month at time of full moon, and had power to adopt or reject the propositions of the kings and senate. Five *Ephori*, or inspectors, were charged with the execution of the laws. The Spartans, who numbered about nine thousand, alone enjoyed all political rights. The other inhabitants of the kingdom were Helots, or slaves.

6. Civil Laws and Customs.—The land was divided up equally among the citizens, each portion being inalienable. The circulation of gold and silver was prohibited. An iron coin of very low value alone was used. This was to prevent the accumulation of riches. Meals were in common and of the frugal kind specified by law, consisting chiefly of a little black broth. The kings fared in common with the rest.

7. The children were devoted to the state rather than to their parents. A male infant was exposed before the elders. If deformed or weakly he was condemned to death and cast into a cavern near Mount Tagetus. If strong he was given back to the parents till he reached the age of seven. He then became the property of the state. His head was shaved; he went barefoot; and to make him hardy and bold he was compelled to train in bloody combats with his comrades. On the feast of Diana he was whipped till the blood came.

8. In an education of this kind letters had no part. The youth, however, were orally instructed in a knowledge

5. Describe the constitution of Lycurgus. 6. Describe the land laws and civil customs in Sparta. 7. What was the training of the Spartan children? 8. What is meant by *laconic*? Who were the Helots?

of the laws, and modesty of deportment and brevity of speech were inculcated, whence the expression *laconic*. The Helots were the most miserable of slaves, and their lot was inhumanly hard. In fact, humanity did not enter into Spartan law. The gentleness of family life was lost in sacrifice to the needs of a brutal and barbarous state.

9. The First Messenian War.—Taught to love nothing but their country, the Spartans hated all other nations. On a slight excuse they invaded Messenia, a fertile strip which they wished to add to Sparta. The Messenians, at first defeated, were rallied by Aristodemus, who, in a fit of madness, immolated his own daughter to save his country. Reverses came; Aristodemus slew himself on his daughter's tomb; and after a struggle of twenty years the Messenians succumbed, consenting to give half their annual harvest to Sparta (744-724).

10. Second War (684-668); Aristomenes.—The Messenians were disaffected, and, after forty years, revolted under Aristomenes, who destroyed the Lacedæmonian army. Sparta sought aid from Athens, who, in derision, sent her a lame schoolmaster named Tyrteus. He was a poet, and roused the country by his songs. The Messenians were overcome by the new enthusiasm and retreated to Ira, north of Messene. After a siege of eleven years Ira was carried by assault. Aristomenes, disheartened, retired to Rhodes. Some of his countrymen went to found a colony in Sicily; the majority were reduced to slavery. These afterwards fomented a rebellion of the Helots, known as the third Messenian war (464-454); but Sparta triumphed over all.

11. Athens.—The Athenians, neighbors of the Spartans, early (1045) abolished royalty, under the pretence that no

9. Sketch the first Messenian war. What of Aristodemus? 10. How did the second Messenian war originate? Who was Tyrteus? What was the third Messenian war and its result?

man was worthy of being King Codrus' successor. They appointed instead an *archon*, or governor, for life, whose term of authority later on was limited to ten years, and finally (684) to one, when it was shared by nine archons. There was always trouble in the government. Draco, a wise and upright man, was at last asked to draw up a code for the people (622).

12. Draco's code was found to be too severe. It punished all offences alike with death. So the people had recourse to Solon, a wise and wealthy citizen, whom they made archon. He abolished Draco's laws and drew up a system improving on that of Lycurgus. It was inspired by a just spirit of moderation to all and a true regard for the public weal. By it the citizens were divided into four classes, three of which possessed the public offices and magistracies. The fourth class, the poor, had the right of voting in public assemblies where the great affairs of state were determined on, after having previously received the sanction of the senate.

13. Pisistratus (561-527).—The citizens swore to observe Solon's laws for ten years. He spent those years in foreign travel, and on his return found Athens divided by factions and feuds. Pisistratus, a relative of Solon, at last succeeded in attaining supreme power (561). He used his power well and for the benefit of Athens. He cultivated the taste for letters and arts among his countrymen. On his death his sons, Hippias and Hipparchus, succeeded to the power, and for thirteen years (527-514) followed faithfully in the footsteps of their father. Hipparchus was assassinated by Harmodius and Aristogiton for a personal injury done to Harmodius. The assassins were slain, but were afterwards honored as victims to the

11. Describe the government at Athens. 12. What was Draco's code? Who changed it? Describe the system of Solon. 13. Give the history of Pisistratus. Of his sons, Hippias and Hipparchus.

cause of liberty. Hippias grew suspicious and cruel, and was finally driven from the city. With him perished Athenian royalty in the year (510) before the expulsion of the Tarquins from Rome.

14. The Republic.—Government by the people was re-established. The archon Clisthenes made various changes in the constitution, needed by the growing power of the state. Athens was now the most powerful rival of Sparta, which possessed two-thirds of the Peloponnesus. The Spartans were averse to the reforms which made their rival more favored by the people and altogether a pleasanter power to live under.

15. Religion, Customs, etc.—The Greeks cultivated an extraordinary number of extraordinary divinities. There was a deity for every human passion, and a festival in its honor. The worship of Bacchus, the god of wine, was especially favored at Athens, and his festival was a debauch. The same is true of the festival of Ceres, celebrated at Eleusis every fifth year. The festival lasted nine days, and it was made a capital offence to reveal any of its secrets.

16. The Greeks made much of their oracles, the most famous of which was that of Apollo at Delphi. The oracle spoke through the mouth of a priestess while in a real or pretended frenzy. The sayings were guarded and obscure, so that they could be conveniently read in opposite senses, being destined to foreshadow events. People came from all parts, even foreign lands, to consult this famous oracle.

17. Amphictyonic Council.—The Amphictyonic Council, attributed to Amphictyon, King of Thessaly, was an association, at once religious and political, of twelve Greek

14. What caused the rivalry between Athens and Sparta? 15. Describe the religion of the Greeks. 16. Describe the oracle at Delphi. 17. What was the Amphictyonic Council?

cities to judge upon all important cases, especially attempts against the rights of men or the sanctuary at Delphi. Decisions were by majority of votes, each city having two.

18. The Games.—All athletic exercises and public combats formed part of the religion of the Greeks. There were four great public games: the Isthmian, near Corinth, held in honor of Neptune; the Nemean, in Argos, in honor of Hercules; the Pythian, at Delphi, in honor of Apollo; and the most famous of all, the Olympian, at Olympia, celebrated every four years. The games were great public festivals that brought the people together. They were open to all comers to contend; the conditions being that the contestants were of Hellenic blood, freemen, and of good character. In 776 Corœbus, a runner, carried off the prize at Olympia. From that year the Greeks reckoned their Olympiads, or periods of four years.

19. The games were horse and foot races, leaping, throwing the discus or quoit, wrestling, and boxing. The diet of the athletes was of the severest kind, the use of wine being prohibited. In the races even kings contended for the prize. The victor was crowned before the assembled Greeks, was borne in triumph to his city, and a breach made in the walls for his entry. He was ever after maintained at public expense. The poets sang his praises, and statues were erected in his honor.

SECTION II. Median Wars (500-449 B.C.)

20. The Median wars originated in the ambition of Darius I. of Persia. Having conquered Macedonia, he threatened the independence of Greece. The Ionians, originally an Attic colony, owned one of the richest provinces in

18. Name the four great public games. What was their object? What is an Olympiad? 19. What was prohibited to athletes? How was a victor at the games honored? 20. What was the origin of the Median wars?

Asia Minor. They chafed under the yoke which Cyrus had imposed on them, and, at the instigation of Aristagoras, tyrant of Miletus, renounced their allegiance to Persia. Athens sent them aid. The allies marched on Sardis and burnt it (500). This was the signal for a war of fifty years between the Persians and the Greeks.

21. First Median War.—Darius quelled the revolt in Ionia, and sent Mardonius, his son-in-law, with a powerful fleet and army against the Greeks. A tempest dispersed the fleet, and the Brygi defeated the army. Darius sent a more powerful army, preceded by heralds demanding of all the chief cities land and water in the name of the Persian king. Such was their mode of exacting submission. Most cities submitted. At Athens and Sparta the heralds were thrown into a ditch and bade take all the land and water they desired.

22. Battle of Marathon.—Thereupon six hundred vessels set sail from the shore of Asia for Attica. They landed an army of one hundred and ten thousand men near Marathon, a small town within ten miles of Athens. The Athenians had only ten thousand soldiers. Aristides the Just, with Miltiades and eight other chiefs, was at the head of this force. The chief command was ceded to Miltiades. The wisdom of the choice showed itself in a complete victory for the Athenians after a fierce and bloody conflict. The remnants of the Persians fled in their ships.

23. Miltiades, to whose skill the victory was chiefly due, was soon after accused of treason and condemned to pay a fine of fifty talents (nearly fifty-three thousand dollars). Being unable to pay, he was thrown into prison and perished there. Aristides also was ostracized by the intrigues of Themistocles and banished for ten years.

21. How were the heralds of Darius treated? 22. Who commanded the Athenians at Marathon? What was the result of the battle? 23. How were Miltiades and Aristides treated?

24. Xerxes and the Greeks (485-472).—After the death of Darius the war against the Greeks was carried on by Xerxes, his son. Xerxes did not inherit the great qualities of his father. He fitted out an enormous expedition, and constructed a bridge of boats for the passage of his forces across the Hellespont into Greece. A storm broke up the bridge. Two other bridges were constructed, over which the Persian forces, computed at two millions, passed.

25. Thermopylæ (480).—Before this overwhelming force the Greek states at once submitted, with the exception of Sparta, Athens, and Plataea. The allies had only a fleet of three hundred sail. Leonidas, the Spartan king, with a bare four thousand men, held the pass of Thermopylæ, by which alone the Persians could enter Greece. But all were animated with the supremest patriotism and resolved to die rather than yield. Xerxes with his vast army was surprised to find the pass disputed. He tried every means to win over Leonidas, but to the final command to lay down his arms the Spartan leader sent the bold reply: “Come and take them.”

26. The Persian went to take them; but it cost him three days' desperate fighting and loss to effect nothing. He began to despair, when a secret path over the mountain commanding the Spartan position was treacherously revealed to him. The Persians gained the eminence, and Leonidas, seeing it was no longer possible to hold the pass, heroically dismissed the allies, and with his three hundred Spartans resolved to die there in face of the host opposed to them. And so they died, with the exception of one who escaped to tell the tale and was ever regarded as a traitor. The battle of Thermopylæ thenceforward be-

24. Give an account of the invasion of Greece by Xerxes. 25. What states held out against the Persians? Give the story of Thermopylæ. 26. What was the fate of Leonidas and his three hundred?

longed to all history as a supreme example of self-sacrificing patriotism.

27. Salamis (480).—Xerxes then marched in, and, ravaging Phocia, advanced to Athens. He found there only a heap of ashes. The Athenians had burnt their city rather than let it fall into the hands of the enemy. The battle was now transferred to the sea, where the Persian fleet prepared to overwhelm the Greeks. From a height near Salamis Xerxes looked down upon the combat. Themistocles led the Greeks. The Persians, under the eyes of their monarch, made a fierce onslaught, but were driven back. The attack was soon changed into a retreat. Xerxes, dismayed, fled to the Hellespont, only to find his bridge broken, and the Persian monarch himself escaped to Asia in a small fishing-smack.

28. Plataea and Mycale (479).—Nevertheless he left an enormous force behind him under the command of Mardonius, his brother-in-law; but the shadow of defeat clung to them. The opposing forces met near Plataea, in Boeotia. The Athenians and Lacedæmonian allies were under the joint commands of Aristides and Pausanias. The battle was prolonged and desperate, but the death of the Persian general decided the day in favor of the Greeks. Of the three hundred thousand Persians engaged not more than fifty thousand are reported to have escaped. On the same day a great naval victory was won at Mycale over the still formidable remnant of the Persian fleet, resulting in a loss of all the Persian vessels. Thenceforth no Persian army ever crossed the Hellespont (479).

29. Themistocles.—Themistocles now set himself to the work of rebuilding Athens. The Spartans, jealous of their rival, argued that it was for the common interest there should

27. Describe events subsequent to the battle of Thermopylæ. Who commanded at Salamis? What was the result of the battle? 28. Describe the battles of Plataea and Mycale. The result? 29. Who rebuilt Athens?

be no fortified city out of the Peloponnesus. Themistocles set out alone to argue the case in Sparta, secretly urging his countrymen while the negotiations pended to push on the work night and day. At Sparta he waited for the arrival of his colleagues, and by his skill so delayed the negotiations that by the time he made the open declaration that the Athenians needed a fortified city the work was too far advanced, and the Athenians too powerful, to be undone (478). Themistocles, returning to Athens, constructed and fortified the Piræus to further protect the city.

30. Themistocles' Reward.—Though a true Athenian, Themistocles was full of ambition. His ambition and love of power cost him his place and popularity, and he suffered the fate of Miltiades. He was banished (473). Meanwhile Xerxes was assassinated and succeeded by his son, Artaxerxes Longimanus (473). At the court of this prince Themistocles sought and found refuge. Cimon, the son of Miltiades, was appointed commander-in-chief in his stead (471).

31. Cimon.—Cimon, while he was the equal both of his father and Themistocles in war, was their superior in peace, patriotism, and administrative capacity. He drove the Persians from the Grecian territory and pursued them into their own. At the mouth of the Eurymedon he defeated their fleet, and the same day, landing his army, he cut theirs in pieces (470). He threatened Artaxerxes himself, who as a last resource asked Themistocles to oppose him. Rather than do so Themistocles put an end to his life (466). Artaxerxes was finally compelled to conclude a peace with Cimon, by which Persia lost all the Greek cities in Asia Minor and promised to withdraw its fleets and armies far from the Grecian coast.

Describe the mission of Themistocles at Sparta. 30. How was Themistocles rewarded? Where did he seek refuge? Who succeeded him at Athens? 31. Describe the achievements of Cimon. What was the end of Themistocles?

SECTION III. Pericles; the Peloponnesian War (431-404 B.C.)

32. Pericles.—With their victory over the Persians the alliance of the Greeks dissolved and the old internal jealousies were resumed. The results of the war with Persia gave Athens the pre-eminence. The rest of the Greeks agreed to pay Athens an annual sum to defray the expenses of the war and to build ships. The truth was, Athens was the mind and right arm of Greece. Pericles, who succeeded Cimon, was his equal in military genius, and a man of great eloquence and winning grace of manner. His government was the crown of Athens' glory.

33. He beautified the city by erecting magnificent temples and public buildings that are still the wonder of the world. Phidias, the sculptor, was his chief assistant in this. He encouraged the growth of letters, and his time was the time of the great Greek dramatists, Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, and Aristophanes, whose works are the wonder of all time. History flourished in Herodotus, Thucydides, and Xenophon. Isocrates and Lysias were great in oratory. Besides Phidias sculpture and painting counted Callicrates, Apollodorus, Zeuxis, and Parrhasius. Philosophy shone in Anaxagoras, Socrates, and Plato. Hippocrates gave a new character to the science of medicine; and Pericles himself crowned them all as statesman, general, admiral, orator, and citizen.

34. The Peloponnesian War.—This supremacy of intellect and power provoked the jealousy of the rest of the Greeks. They complained that their money was wasted in embellishing Athens. A league, under the leadership of Archidamus, King of Sparta, and comprising nearly all the Peloponnesus, was made against Athens. Archidamus, at the

32. What state now took the lead in Greece? Who succeeded Cimon? 33. Describe the time of Pericles and the great men of that epoch. 34. What led to the Peloponnesian war? Who took the lead against Athens? -

head of sixty thousand men, invaded Attica, and before so overwhelming a force the Athenians retired within their city. But their fleet, under Pericles, was abroad, and ravaged all the coast of Peloponnesus, compelling the allies to return and defend their own (431).

35. Plague at Athens; Death of Pericles (428).—Meanwhile a plague had broken out in Athens among the multitude confined there. Pericles himself on his return fell a victim to it, while the Lacedæmonians again entered and ravaged the country. Plataea, with a force of five hundred men, held out against them for three years (430-427). Famine having reduced the garrison to the last extremity, they resolved to cut their way through the army of the enemy. Favored by darkness, those of them who were courageous enough to dare the attempt effected their escape. The others surrendered and were basely slain.

36. Alcibiades.—The war had now lasted ten years, and both sides were weakened by their losses. A suspension of hostilities was agreed upon. After a year this was broken (420) by the action of Alcibiades, a young Athenian noble of extraordinary gifts but extraordinary rashness and contempt for conventionalities. Full of youthful ambition and naturally restless, he persuaded the Athenians to break the peace. Under his guidance they engaged at once in a double war with Sparta and with Syracuse.

37. Syracuse was one of the most powerful cities of the time. Alcibiades found an easy pretext for fitting out an expedition against it under the joint command of himself, Nicias, and Lamachus. His brilliant audacity just suited the ambitious and versatile temper of the Athenians. Landing on the Sicilian coast, he took the city of Catana by surprise. He was at once recalled to Athens to answer a charge

35. What became of Pericles? Describe the siege of Plataea. 36. Who broke the peace? What was the character of Alcibiades? 37. What place did the Athenians choose for attack? How was Alcibiades treated? The result?

of having mutilated the statues of Mercury. Instead of returning he escaped and joined the Lacedæmonians, to the injury of his own people.

38. Siege of Syracuse.—Nicias, succeeding to the command, blockaded Syracuse and almost surrounded it on the land side. The city was on the point of surrendering when Gylippus, a Spartan general, arrived and gave new courage to the besieged. He offered Nicias five days to depart. The offer was met by scornful silence. Gylippus stormed a fort near the city, which gave him an opportunity of fortifying it beyond the lines of the besieging force.

39. Demosthenes was sent out from Athens with an army to aid Nicias. He signalized his arrival by an ambitious night-attack, which resulted in a panic of his own troops, and the whole Athenian army with their generals was finally compelled to surrender. The generals were condemned to death and the troops to barbarous sufferings.

40. Recall of Alcibiades.—The Athenians now saw their mistake, and in their extremity recalled Alcibiades. Before returning he joined the Athenian fleet near the Asiatic coast and inflicted two severe blows on the Lacedæmonians, slaying their admiral and destroying their army (408). His return became a triumph (407). During his absence Antiochus, one of his lieutenants, attacked the Lacedæmonian fleet and suffered a severe defeat (406). The Athenians, ever fickle, blamed Alcibiades for this reverse. He was deprived of the command and ten generals were appointed in his place.

41. Athens exhausted herself in fitting out anew one hundred and fifty vessels. Callicratidas, a man of fine

38. Who relieved Syracuse? 39. Who went to the aid of Nicias? How did the siege end? 40. Why was Alcibiades recalled? Describe his return. Why was he again disgraced?

honor and great valor, was the Spartan commander. He gave battle in face of overwhelming odds, was defeated, slain, and his fleet destroyed (406). Owing to stress of weather the sacred duty of burying the Athenian dead was not complied with. This gave great offence at Athens, and the victorious generals were, unheard, condemned to death and executed by decree of the assembly of the people.

42. Lysander.—Lysander, a brave and competent general, was given command of the Lacedæmonian fleet (405). He surprised the Athenians at the mouth of the Ægos Potamos, in the Hellespont, took their fleet, dispersed their army, and captured three thousand prisoners with their generals. In an hour he had destroyed the power of Athens and put an end to the Peloponnesian war, which had lasted twenty-seven years.

43. Taking of Athens (404).—There was nothing left to the Athenians but surrender. The Lacedæmonians refused to destroy a city which had rendered such services to Greece. The fortifications of the Piræus were demolished; the Athenians delivered up all their ships save twelve, engaged to confine themselves to the limits of Attica and follow the Lacedæmonians wherever the latter wished to lead them.

44. Artaxerxes II. (404-362).—After a series of disturbances in Persia the throne was filled towards the close of the Peloponnesian war by Artaxerxes II., surnamed Mnemon because of his wonderful memory. To his brother, Cyrus the Younger, was given the government of Asia Minor. Cyrus aimed at supreme power. With an army of one hundred thousand men and thirteen thousand Greeks he marched from Sardis to Susa

41. What befell Callieratidas? Why were the Athenian generals condemned? 42. Who put an end to the Peloponnesian war? In what way? 43. What became of Athens? 44. Who reigned in Persia at this time? Who in Asia Minor?

against his elder brother. The opposing forces met at Cunaxa, in Babylonia, and Cyrus was slain, after fighting his way to Artaxerxes and wounding him. The Greeks, however, sustained the fight and defeated the host opposed to them; but, learning of the death of Cyrus, they retreated. Tissaphernes, the general of Artaxerxes, fearing to attack them, ensnared their chief officers by perfidy and put them to death.

45. The Ten Thousand (401-400).—The Greeks were in a country unknown to them and fifteen hundred miles from Greece. Xenophon, afterwards the historian, who was an officer in the expedition, revived their courage and prevailed on them to appoint new leaders. Himself and four others were chosen. They resolved to fight and march their way back to their own country.

46. Then ensued one of the most memorable retreats in history. Harassed by the pursuing Persians, by the inhabitants of the territory through which they passed, by the natural difficulties of an unknown country, they made their way steadily through all obstacles and after a march of seven months they reached the sea—the Hellespont.

47. Socrates; the Thirty Tyrants (404).—Socrates, the instructor of Plato and the friend of Alcibiades, had long moved Athens by the novelty and power of his teachings. His life was in contrast to his surroundings. He was not, in the Athenian sense, a polished man. He had fought in the wars, lived a laborious life, and contemned worldly riches and ambition. But his intellect was of an extraordinarily keen, powerful, and truth-seeking kind. Nothing could shake his tranquil soul, not even the temper of a shrewish wife—Xantippe.

48. After the surrender of Athens Lysander established

Describe the battle of Cunaxa. What befell the Greeks? 45. Who assumed command of the Greeks? 46. Describe the march of the ten thousand. 47. Describe the character and work of Socrates.

there a council of thirty tyrants. This was opposed to the government of the people, and the tyrants became odious oppressors. Socrates alone stood up and denounced them. After eight months of this Thrasybulus, an Athenian of capacity and merit, overthrew the tyrants and delivered the country from their yoke.

49. Socrates especially loved to be among and teach the Athenian youth, and the youths loved to follow and listen to him. So truth-loving a nature and bold a speaker necessarily begot enemies. They charged him with corrupting the youth and introducing new gods. His defence of himself was very noble, calm, and complete. But he was condemned to drink the hemlock poison, and obeyed the sentence of his unjust judges (400). He believed in an immortal soul and in the providence of one supreme and beneficent being; yet he outwardly followed the customary worship of his country, which was idolatry.

50. **Sparta leads.**—After the fall of Athens Sparta was the first power in Greece. She sent Agesilaus, a general deformed in stature and of mean appearance but of great ability, to assist the Greek colonies in Asia Minor against the Persians. He conquered Asia Minor. To arrest his progress Artaxerxes bribed the Greeks to revolt. Athens, Thebes, and Corinth leagued against Sparta. Agesilaus returned from Asia and defeated the allies at Coronea, in Boeotia (394). But Conon, the Athenian, defeated the Lacedæmonian fleet near Cnidus.

51. Aided by Persian gold and the Persian fleet, Conon soon rebuilt the walls of Athens, and the Lacedæmonians in alarm signed a humiliating treaty, by which all the Greek cities in Asia Minor were ceded to the Per-

48. How was Athens governed at this time? Who overthrew the tyrants?
49. Why was Socrates condemned? 50. Who was Agesilaus? Describe his achievements. 51. Who rebuilt Athens? What treaty was signed with Persia?

sian king and liberty was given to all the cities of Greece. Thus Sparta remained in the ascendant.

52. Pelopidas and Epaminondas.—Sparta sought to increase her power by possessing the strong citadel of Thebes, which she effected by fraud (382). Thebes had at the time two great men—Pelopidas and Epaminondas. Pelopidas, a young man, spent much of his wealth in assisting the poor and lightening their hard lot. Epaminondas was poor from choice, and was a singular example of every virtue in those days.

53. Pelopidas rallied the Theban fugitives, and, entering the city at night, surprised the Spartan magistrates and slew them. Next day they compelled the garrison of the citadel to capitulate just as succor arrived at the gates.

54. Battle of Leuctra (371).—War ensued, and the Thebans proved victorious. At last the Lacedæmonians sent an army of twenty-four thousand men, under the command of one of the kings, Cleombrotus, to ravage Bœotia. Epaminondas with six thousand men marched to meet them and gave them battle near Leuctra (371). After a most obstinate conflict, in which Cleombrotus was slain, Epaminondas gained the victory. Following up the foe, he re-established the Messenians in their country and invaded Laconia. Agesilaus was besieged in his capital, and for the first time the Spartan women saw “the smoke of an enemy’s camp.”

55. Trial of the Theban Generals; Battle of Mantinea (363).—On their victorious return the Theban generals were arraigned on the charge of having kept the command longer than allowed by law. Pelopidas barely escaped; but the noble eloquence of Epaminondas not only cleared him but brought him additional glory. War with Sparta soon broke

52. Who were the Theban leaders? Describe their character. 53. How was Sparta taken? 54. Describe the battle of Leuctra and its results. 55. How were the Theban generals rewarded? Describe the progress of the war.

out again. Epaminondas, preparing to besiege Mantinea, learned that Agesilaus was coming to its relief. He let him come, and, turning aside, made for Sparta, which Agesilaus, warned in time, hardly succeeded in reaching before him. Epaminondas returned to Mantinea and the Spartans followed.

56. In the battle that ensued the Theban general was again victorious, but fell in the hour of victory (363). Pelopidas had fallen in like manner a year before; and with these two men, who had created the power of Thebes, it fell. But Sparta was broken for ever.

CHAPTER VII.

MACEDONIA: EMPIRE OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT.

FROM the time that Macedonia enters into Grecian life its history comprises three periods: 1. The foundation of Macedonian power by Philip; 2. The conquests and empire of Alexander the Great; 3. The dismemberment of that empire.

SECTION I. Philip (360-337 B.C.)

1. Rise of Macedonia.—While the Grecian states were for ever engaged in internecine strife the kingdom of Macedonia, in the north of Greece, had been slowly solidifying into a strong power. It was an hereditary kingdom founded by the Corinthians about eight hundred years before Christ. It was unnoticed in history until the reign of Philip, a disciple of Epaminondas. He was a man of deep schemes and firm resolve, and allowed no scruples of conscience to stand between him and his purpose. He soon lifted his obscure little kingdom into one of the powers of the world.

56. What great battle ended it? Who fell there? What was the result?
 1. Describe the growth of Macedonia. Who first brought it into prominence?
 What was Philip's character?

2. Birth of Alexander (356).—Philip had a son, to whom he gave the name of Alexander. The young prince was given Aristotle, the philosopher, as tutor. Philip, who highly esteemed learning, begged the philosopher to rear his boy to be a successor worthy of himself and a king worthy of Macedonia.

3. Sacred War (355-345).—A case against the Phocians, who inhabited the territories adjacent to Delphi, was brought before the Amphictyonic council. The Phocians were pronounced sacrilegious and compelled to pay a heavy fine. They refused, and all Greece was drawn into the quarrel that ensued.

4. Philip alone remained neutral, and, while the others were engaged in strife, quietly widened his own frontiers and subjected Thrace. When he thought the Greeks sufficiently weakened he declared against the Phocians, secured the passes of Thermopylæ, and entered their country. Easily overcoming them, he returned with all the honor and profit of closing a war in which he had taken no risks.

5. Second Sacred War (338) ; Demosthenes (385-322).—Philip held Thermopylæ, the key of Greece. Under pretence of avenging an insult to Apollo he took Elatea, the chief city of Phocis (338). Athens and Thebes were now exposed to the powerful monarch, and were only saved by the eloquence of Demosthenes. Demosthenes was the most celebrated orator of antiquity, and probably of all time. He saw the designs of Philip, and assailed them unceasingly with all his power in his famous *Philippics* and *Olynthiacs*. These orations did more injury to Philip than all the fleets and armies brought against him.

6. Battle of Chæronea.—Demosthenes prevailed on the Athenians and Thebans to unite against the common foe.

2. What was the name of Philip's son ? What famous tutor had he ? 3. Give the origin of the Sacred war. 4. What part did Philip take ? 5. What great orator opposed him ? What were his orations called ?

Philip entered Bœotia and met the allies near Chæronea (338). Philip commanded the right, and gave the left to Alexander, then a youth of seventeen. The battle was most stubborn, but Alexander at length broke the "sacred band," which was the flower of the Theban army. Philip at first was nearly defeated, but in the end his superior generalship prevailed and the allies were totally routed. He used his victory wisely, and was made commander-in-chief of the republics' armies. While contemplating the conquest of Asia he was stabbed by one of his own subjects.

SECTION II. Alexander the Great (336-323 B.C.)

7. Defeat of the Greeks.—Alexander was twenty on ascending the throne. He was faced by conspiracies among all those whom his father had subjected. The Greeks, urged by Demosthenes, formed a new league against the youth. Alexander gave them little time. He hurried to Thebes, defeated the Thebans with great slaughter, and levelled their city to the ground.

8. Conquest of Asia.—This example terrified the rest. Alexander was proclaimed commander-in-chief of all the Greek forces. He hastened to set out for Asia and fulfil his father's dream of conquest. At the Granicus, in Phrygia, he was opposed by an army of one hundred thousand men. He crossed the stream and defeated the enemy, killing their general. This left him master of the country (334). In a very short time he overran Asia Minor, capturing all the chief cities, until he reached Tarsus, in Cilicia, on the banks of the Cydnus.

9. Battle of Issus.—Here he was seized with fever and came near death. Darius Codomannus, King of Persia, was approaching with a vast force of six hundred thousand

6. Describe the battle of Chæronea. What was Philip's fate? 7. How did Alexander begin his reign? 8. What great expedition did Alexander undertake? Describe the battle of the Granicus, and its results.

men. The Macedonians were only forty thousand. Alexander recovered in time for battle, and, having taken up a most advantageous position at Issus, awaited the Persians. It was a battle between a compact army of veterans and an unwieldy mob badly led. Alexander's victory was complete. Among the captives taken were Sisygambis, mother of Darius, with his wife, two daughters, and his little son. They were treated by the conqueror with the greatest courtesy and respect.

10. The Fall of Tyre.—Alexander now advanced into Syria and Phœnicia. Every city save Tyre opened its gates to the young monarch. Tyre held out against him for seven months, but was at length taken and all the brave inhabitants either slain or sold into slavery. Alexander was forgetting his magnanimity, and his conquests became too many to sustain with his early moderation. He marched against Jerusalem to avenge the attachment of the Jews to the Persian king; but on entering the Holy City his heart was changed. He revered Jaddus, the venerable high-priest, and became a benefactor to the Jewish people.

11. The March of Conquest.—He then turned to Egypt, where he was welcomed by the people. Here his pride overcame him. He wished to pass for a god, and with this view crossed the Libyan deserts to the temple of Jupiter-Ammon. There the priest declared him to be a son of Jupiter, and he built a great city on the northern coast of Egypt, to which he gave the name of Alexandria.

12. Arbela (331).—Leaving Egypt, he crossed the Euphrates and Tigris, and again found himself opposed by Darius with an immense army. The Persians at first were successful; but Alexander's strategy turned the day, and Darius with difficulty escaped. This battle of Arbela gave Alex-

ander the empire of Asia and cost the Persians three hundred thousand men.

13. Fall of Babylon and Persepolis.—Babylon and Susa now opened their gates to the conqueror. Defeating Ariobarzanes, he entered Persepolis, the capital, where he found immense treasures, which he distributed among his soldiers. Here in a drunken fit he set fire to the palace of Xerxes—a shameful act which he tried to undo when too late.

14. Death of Darius.—Darius fled to Ecbatana, the capital of Media. Alexander followed him up. Bessus, one of Darius's generals, took possession of the king's person. Darius refused to fly further, and Bessus, piercing him with arrows, left him dying on the field. Alexander arrived just as the unfortunate prince expired. He wept over his body and ordered a magnificent funeral.

15. End of the Persian Empire.—With Darius ended the Persian Empire, which had lasted two hundred and eight years, from the taking of Babylon by Cyrus. Bessus, falling into Alexander's hands, was condemned to be quartered. Encamping on the Jaxartes, Alexander built the city of Alexandreschata to mark the limits of his Scythian expedition.

16. Death of Clitus.—Having overcome all, Alexander now fell a victim to himself and yielded to foolish pride and debauchery. In a drunken brawl he slew Clitus, who saved his life at the Granicus, and to whom he was greatly attached. The treacherous act preyed upon him. The Macedonians began to murmur at the changed life of their king. To occupy them he turned to India to subjugate it.

17. Alexander in India.—After a march of sixteen days he arrived at the Indus. All the kings of the country save Porus came to offer their submission. Porus had an

13. What shameful act did Alexander commit at Persepolis? 14. What befell Darius? 15. What great empire ended with Darius? 16. Describe the change in Alexander's character.

immense army, and was further protected by the Hydaspes, a broad, deep, and rapid stream. Under cover of a storm Alexander succeeded in crossing and surprising Porus. The conqueror asked him how he would be treated. "Like a king," was the answer; and his noble bearing so impressed Alexander that he gave him back his kingdom and added other provinces to it (327).

18. Return to Babylon (325).—Alexander wished to cross the Ganges, the largest river of India, and extend his conquests, but his soldiers murmured and compelled him to return towards Babylon. The march back was one of dreadful hardships. Once back in the fertile country of Babylon, he gave himself up to a seven days' debauch and his troops followed his example.

19. Death of Alexander (323).—In Babylon Alexander found ambassadors awaiting him from all parts of the world to do him homage. His mind was filled with new schemes of conquest: of Arabia, the circumnavigation of Africa, and the subjugation of Europe. His health, however, gave way under his repeated debauchery, and, full of his schemes, he passed away by fever, lingering a few days, long enough to feel and recognize the littleness of man before a superior power (323).

SECTION III. Dismemberment of Alexander's Empire.

20. Alexander's Successor.—Alexander left behind him the vastest empire ever known. He refused to name a successor. His brother, Philip Aridæus, a man of weak mind, was chosen king, and had as associate Alexander Ægus, the son of Roxana, wife of Alexander. Perdiccas was appointed regent. The thirty generals divided up among themselves the provinces of the empire as satra-

17. Who opposed Alexander in India? What befell Porus? 18. Why did Alexander return to Babylon? 19. Who awaited him in Babylon? What caused his death? 20. What became of Alexander's empire?

pies. To Ptolemy fell Egypt; to Antipater, Macedonia and Greece; to Antigonos, Lydia, etc.

21. Anarchy.—The death of Alexander was the signal for a series of revolts, which were sternly quelled by the generals, especially one of the Greeks inspired by Demosthenes, which resulted in their defeat and Demosthenes' death. The generals then fought among themselves, and for twenty-two years there was nothing but anarchy in the empire, which finally dissolved into four kingdoms: the kingdom of Thrace, which lasted only a short time; the kingdom of Macedonia, of Egypt, and of Syria, the last being the largest and most powerful of the four.

CHAPTER VIII.

STATES FORMED OUT OF ALEXANDER'S EMPIRE.

THE principal states formed from the breaking up of Alexander's empire were the kingdoms of Egypt, Syria, and Macedonia. The kingdom of Thrace disappeared with Lysimachus.

SECTION I. Egypt under the Lagi (323-30 B.C.)

1. Ptolemy I., Sotor (323-285).—Ptolemy I., surnamed Sotor, or Saviour, by the Rhodians, founded the dynasty of the Lagi, so-called from Lagus, his father. Egypt fell to him, and he added to it Cyrenaica, the isle of Cyprus, and Phœnicia. He was an able, wise, and prudent prince, a lover of science and learning. He began the famous Alexandrian library.

2. Ptolemy II. (285-247).—Ptolemy II. inherited his father's fine tastes, and completed in the first year of his reign the great light-house of Pharos, one of the wonders

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21. What ensued on the death of Alexander? How was his empire finally divided? 1. What dynasty did Ptolemy found? For what was he famous? 2. What was the character of Ptolemy II.?

of the world. He added to the Alexandrian library, among other valuable works, a translation of the Old Testament from the Hebrew into Greek. The high-priest of the Jews sent the books and translators to assist him. They completed the version of the Old Testament known as the Septuagint.

3. Ptolemy also, by means of a canal and the Nile, opened up communications between the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, making his kingdom the highway for the commerce of the East, and his capital, Alexandria, the general emporium of the world. The city became the centre of learning, art, science, and luxury, and was adorned with splendid edifices. Its inhabitants were of three classes, the Egyptians, the mercenaries in the king's service, and the Alexandrians—a name given to strangers who settled there, and who were for the most part Greeks or Jews.

4. **Ptolemy III. (247-222).**—Ptolemy III. began his reign by a war to avenge the death of his sister, Berenice, Queen of Syria, who was murdered at the instigation of her rival, Laodice. He overran Syria, put Laodice to death, and returned with an immense booty. Passing through Jerusalem, he offered rich sacrifices to the true God for his victory. He was the last of his dynasty who showed any virtue.

5. **Ptolemy IV. (222-205).**—There was war between Antiochus the Great of Syria and Ptolemy IV. for the recovery of the provinces wrested from Syria in the last reign. The final conflict came at Raphia, which was won by Ptolemy after a desperate battle. Palestine and part of Syria thus fell to Egypt. Ptolemy then gave himself up to a life of debauchery and crime that ended in his thirty-seventh year.

What famous literary work is connected with Ptolemy II.? 3. What does commerce owe to Ptolemy? Describe Alexandria. 4. Sketch the reign of Ptolemy III. 5. Sketch the reign of Ptolemy IV.

6. Ptolemy V. (205-181); Ptolemy VI. (181-146).—Ptolemy V., who succeeded, is chiefly known for his perfidy and cruelty. He was poisoned. His son and successor made war on Antiochus Epiphanes. Antiochus conquered Egypt and took Ptolemy prisoner. The Egyptians then set his brother on the throne. Under the pretence of re-establishing Ptolemy VI. Antiochus again invaded Egypt, and would have taken Alexandria had not an embassy from Rome defeated his plans and caused him to return to Syria.

7. Ptolemy VII. (146-117).—Both Ptolemies now agreed to make an equal division of their country. The one held Egypt and the isle of Cyprus, the other (Ptolemy VII.) Libya and Cyrenaica. They soon quarrelled and conquered each other in turn, but at length became reconciled by the generosity of the elder Ptolemy. When he died his brother remained sole master of Egypt. Like the others, he gave himself up to frightful excesses until his death (117).

8. Ptolemy XI. (80-52); Ptolemy XII. and Cleopatra (52-48).—Two others followed in turn, remarkable only for their vices. In the year 80 Ptolemy XI., called *Auletes*, or “the piper,” ascended the throne. Rome had now risen in the Western world, and Ptolemy purchased the protection of Cæsar and Pompey at a price that burdened his people. He had to fly to Rome, and then a Roman army came to re-establish him. At his death he left the crown conjointly to his son and daughter, Ptolemy and Cleopatra, whom he recommended to the care of the Roman people, especially of Pompey, then first citizen of the republic.

9. The two quarrelled, and Cleopatra was driven away.

6. What befell Ptolemy V.? What Ptolemy VI.? Who conquered Egypt?
7. Describe the quarrels between the Ptolemies. 8. Sketch the reign of Ptolemy Auletes. To whom did he leave his crown?

Pompey espoused her cause, but, defeated by Cæsar at Pharsalia, he fled to Egypt and was slain by Ptolemy. Cæsar next fell under the influence of Cleopatra, placed her on the throne, and slew Ptolemy in battle (48).

10. Ptolemy XIII. (48-44) and Cleopatra (48-30).—Cæsar compelled Cleopatra to reign conjointly with her younger brother, Ptolemy, a mere child. She had her brother poisoned and reigned alone, until Mark Antony, the Roman general, came. Him she married. To marry her Antony repudiated his wife, the sister of Octavius Cæsar. The Romans returned. Antony, deserted by Cleopatra at the battle of Actium (31), was wounded to death. She then strove to win over Octavius, but, finding it impossible and disdaining to enter Rome a captive, she ended her life by the poisonous bite of an asp.

11. With Cleopatra ended the dynasty (30 B.C.), which had lasted two hundred and ninety-three years after the death of Alexander the Great. Egypt became a province of the Roman Empire until the middle of the seventh century A.D., when it was conquered by the Saracens.

SECTION II. Syria under the Seleucidæ (301-64 B.C.)

12. Seleucus I. (312-280).—To Seleucus fell the government of Babylon. He extended his kingdom to the Indus and took the title of king (306). The victory of Ipsus (301), gained by Seleucus and Lysimachus over Demetrius and Antigonus, gave to Seleucus all Asia as far as Mount Taurus. Master of Syria, he then built the city of Antioch on the Orontes, and made it his capital. It was named after his father, Antiochus.

13. Thus far he had been the ally of Lysimachus, King of Thrace. But when both were over eighty years old

9. Who befriended Cleopatra? 10-11. Describe relations between Antony and Cleopatra. How did Cleopatra die? What became of Egypt? 12. Over what kingdom did Seleucus reign? What city did he build?

they quarrelled. Lysimachus marched an army as far as Cyropedion, in Phrygia, where he was defeated and slain. Seleucus then added to his kingdom all Asia Minor, Thrace, and Macedonia. His empire now, omitting Egypt, was as vast as that of Alexander. The sole survivor of Alexander's generals, he was assassinated by Ptolemy Ceraunus, whom he had befriended, while in the act of offering a solemn sacrifice of thanksgiving to the gods. Ptolemy thereupon caused himself to be proclaimed King of Thrace and Macedonia.

14. Antiochus I. (280-260); Antiochus II. (260-247).—The son of Seleucus succeeded him on the throne of Syria under the title of Antiochus I. He lost a part of Asia Minor, and was succeeded by Antiochus II., surnamed "Theos," or god. The "god's" reign was a very unfortunate one. While at war with Egypt the Parthians shook off the Syrian yoke and chose as leader Arsaces, a man of obscure birth but of ability and valor. Thus originated the kingdom of Parthia. One after another the provinces revolted, and soon all beyond the Tigris were lost to Syria.

15. Antiochus was obliged to sue for peace with Egypt. The peace involved the repudiation of Laodice, his wife, in favor of Berenice, daughter of Ptolemy. On the death of Ptolemy Antiochus took back his wife. She poisoned him and murdered Berenice. This led to the war with Ptolemy III., the death of Laodice, and the conquest of a great part of Syria from her son, Seleucus II. (247-225). His son, Seleucus III., reigned only three years when he was poisoned (222).

16. Antiochus the Great (222-186).—Antiochus, the second son of Seleucus II., ascended the throne when very young. He inherited the qualities of the founder of his

13. With whom did Seleucus quarrel? How did he extend his empire? What befell him? 14. What happened under his successors? 15. What led to the war with Egypt, and how did the war result?

dynasty. At first he met with reverses and was beaten at Raphia by the Egyptians (217). Shaking off his surroundings, he acted for himself, and the result soon justified his confidence. He checked revolt at home with a resolute hand, and then led his armies eastward to win back the lost provinces.

17. He failed to subdue Parthia, but he stripped it of its acquisitions and confined it to its own narrow bounds. Thence he advanced to the Indus and established his authority everywhere. After seven years spent in these expeditions the young prince returned to Antioch a conqueror (205). He next turned his arms against the Jews. But they, glad to part from Egypt, easily yielded him their allegiance.

18. **War with the Romans.**—He now undertook the conquest of Asia Minor. The free Greek cities that composed it sought the protection of the Romans. Antiochus had been encouraged in his ambition by a visit from Hannibal, the great Carthaginian, who represented to him that the Romans could only be conquered in Italy. Hannibal was at this time a fugitive and offered to conduct the expedition.

19. Entering Greece, Antiochus was met and defeated at Thermopylæ. He fled into Asia (191), closely pursued by Lucius Scipio. Another battle was fought near Magnesia, in Lydia, which was won by the Romans notwithstanding the valor of Antiochus. To obtain peace he was compelled to cede to Rome all the provinces of Asia on that side of Mount Taurus, and defray all the expenses of the war.

20. When the time came to pay he had no money, and to obtain it attempted to plunder the rich temple of Persepolis, but was caught in the act and killed by the people

16. How did Antiochus the Great begin his reign? 17. Sketch his conquests. 18. What led him to war with the Romans? 19. Describe the war and its results. 20. What befell Antiochus? What occurred in the reign of Seleucus II.?

(187). His son Seleucus succeeded, but his reign is only famed for the disastrous attempt to plunder the Temple of Jerusalem by Heliodorus, one of his generals (176).

21. Antiochus IV. (174-164).—Seleucus was succeeded by Antiochus, an ambitious and daring but otherwise contemptible man. He would have achieved the conquest of Egypt had not the Romans prevented him (168). He then turned his fury on the Jews and began a persecution that was stopped by the heroic defence of the Machabees. His generals defeated in Judea, and himself in Persia, he was stricken by a frightful malady that made death a relief (164).

22. Antiochus VIII. (123-97) and Cleopatra.—After many revolutions the crown finally fell to Antiochus Grypus, so-called from the size of his nose. Cleopatra, his mother, attempted to govern in his name. Her hands were already stained with murder, and when her son resisted she tried to murder him also. Presenting him a poisoned cup, he compelled her to drink it herself. Her death rid Syria of a monster (120).

23. After the death of Grypus Syria was torn with contentions, until as a relief she declared allegiance to Tigranes, King of Armenia. He abandoned her to preserve his own states, and finally Pompey reduced Syria to a Roman province (65 B.C.) two hundred and thirty-seven years after the foundation of the kingdom.

SECTION III. Kingdom of Macedonia (319-148 B.C.) and Greece (301 146 B.C.)

24. Cassander (319-298); End of the Family of Alexander (294).—Cassander occupied Macedonia at the death of his father, Antipator, and assumed the title of king in

21. Sketch the reign of Antiochus IV. 22. What ensued on his death? Tell of Antiochus Grypus and his mother. 23. To whom did Syria transfer her allegiance? What did she finally become?

306. The battle of Ipsus secured to him his kingdom. His two children, born of Thessalonica, sister to Alexander the Great, disputed for the crown, and both perished in the struggle. Thus ended the line of Philip and Alexander.

25. Demetrius I. (294-286).—One of Cassander's sons called to his aid Demetrius, son of Antigonos, who, after his father's defeat at Ipsus, held several cities in Greece. Demetrius murdered the prince, deposed his brother, and caused himself to be proclaimed king of Macedonia (294). He now thought of reconquering all that his father had lost in Asia; but his army, won over by Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, revolted. He set out for Asia with a handful of desperate followers. After many wanderings and privations he finally surrendered to Seleucus I., King of Syria. He was well treated, but after three years of inaction and free-living the ambitious and once brilliant "taker of cities" died (283).

26. Antigonos (286-242).—Antigonos, son of Demetrius, tried to move all hearts for the liberation of his father. He offered all that he had and himself as hostage to Seleucus for his father's release. Meanwhile Pyrrhus, master of Macedonia, was dethroned by Lysimachus (286); Lysimachus in turn by Seleucus I. (282); and finally Seleucus was assassinated by Ptolemy Ceraunus (280).

27. In the same year Ceraunus fell in battle against the Gauls, who had pillaged the temple of Delphi. Antigonos seized his opportunity and reconquered Macedonia (278). The death of Pyrrhus (272) relieved him of all competitors, and thenceforward he reigned peacefully in Macedonia. He occupied a part of Greece and became one of the most powerful monarchs of the time. He left Macedonia

24. Who became king of Macedonia? How did the line of Alexander end?
25. Sketch the career of Demetrius I. 26. Tell the story of Antigonos. What happened in Macedonia? 27. How did Antigonos come to the throne?

to his family, which, under them, formed an independent kingdom.

28. Situation of Greece.—From the time of Alexander Greece was attached to Macedonia. Two leagues were formed in it: the *Ætolian*, comprising the cities of Ætolia, and the *Achæan*, comprising several cities of Achaia. The first was a vain effort to debar Demetrius II. (242-232), son of Antigonus, who had seized Bœotia, from Central Greece.

29. The second called the Macedonians in Peloponnesus against the city of Sparta. Sparta was now shorn of her ancient power. The laws of Lycurgus had been forgotten; riches had crept in, and with them luxury and enervation. The race had grown degenerate. Agis, one of the Spartan kings, strove to introduce reform and restore the Lycurgan code. But he perished at the hands of his fellow-citizens (240).

30. Cleomenes, his brother-in-law, succeeded. He set the example of himself giving up all his goods for the public welfare. His example was contagious and the old order was restored. But a war against the Achæans ruined all (228).

31. Antigonus (232-221).—To his nephew Antigonus (Doso) Demetrius II. had left the care of his son Philip, still a child. Antigonus seized the throne, which he occupied for five years. The Achæans called him to their assistance against Cleomenes. He defeated Cleomenes at Selasia. Cleomenes, returning to Sparta, advised the people to receive Antigonus, and himself in despair sailed for Egypt, where he was imprisoned by the king until his death. Antigonus gave the Spartans their liberty.

32. Philip (221-178).—At the death of Antigonus Doso

28. What were the Ætolian and Achæan leagues? 29. Describe the condition of Sparta at this time. 30. Who restored order? 31. Describe the struggle between Cleomenes and Antigonus.

the crown fell to Philip, son of Demetrius II. Philip's early life was full of the best promise, but prosperity ruined him. He entered into a league with Hannibal and the Carthaginians against the Romans (216). The Romans first disposed of Carthage and then turned to Philip. They sent Quintus Flaminius with a large army to invade Macedonia. Defeated at Cynocephalæ, the king was obliged to sue for peace at the cost of all his vessels, his son as hostage, and the evacuation of all the cities of Greece which he had captured (197).

33. The Greeks freed.—At the Isthmian games Quintus proclaimed to the assembled Greeks that the Roman Senate and people restored to them their liberty and their own laws. The announcement was received with universal joy. The Romans thus placed a barrier between themselves and Macedonia, and sowed new seeds of dissension among the Greeks themselves.

34. Philip could not forgive the Romans. His son Demetrius so won upon them that they sent him back free to his father. This only rendered him odious in his father's sight, who preferred his other son, Perseus. At the instance of the latter his elder brother was poisoned by his father.

35. Perseus (178-168).—Perseus succeeded to his father's throne and hatred of the Romans. After many preparations he declared war. But his avarice lost him his best auxiliaries, the Gauls, and he met with a disastrous defeat from the Romans near Pydna. He was afterwards captured and carried to Rome to grace the conqueror's triumph. There he died (167). Macedonia was first declared free, but later on reduced to a Roman province (148) one hundred and seventy-five years after the death of Alexander.

32. Who succeeded Antigonus? What alliance did he make? What was the result? 33. What was the Roman policy with the Greeks? 34. What of Philip and his sons? 35. What became of Perseus and Macedonia?

36. The Achæan League (280).—The Achæan league drew allies to it by its reputation for honesty and justice. Aratus, who had induced Sicyon (251) to join the league, was soon after chosen general. He wrested the Corinthian citadel, which was the key of the Peloponnesus, from the Macedonians by an extraordinary act of daring and skill. This brought Corinth into the league (244). The year following he restored freedom to several cities of the Peloponnesus which were under the sway of tyrants.

37. Aratus.—He made the mistake, however, of warring upon the Lacedæmonians, who were willing to enter the league provided Cleomenes, their king, was chosen chief. This Aratus refused, and war ensued. Suffering repeated defeats, he made the further mistake of calling in Antigonus Doson to his aid. Antigonus defeated Cleomenes, but in reward for his services took back the citadel of Corinth and had himself appointed general of the league, which was equivalent to making them subject to Macedonia.

38. Philopœmen.—Philopœmen, a native of Megalopolis, had distinguished himself greatly at the battle of Sellasia, though only twenty at the time. He was appointed commander-in-chief of the Achæans. They were suffering from an invasion by Machanidas, King of Sparta, who wished to subject the Peloponnesus, and had advanced to Mantinea. There Philopœmen gave battle, and his skill and coolness turned threatened disaster into a great victory. He slew the king with his own hand (206).

39. Nabis.—Nabis succeeded Machanidas, and the Spartans groaned under his tyranny. He was defeated in battle by the Achæans, and, returning to Sparta, was slain by his own people. Philopœmen, hastening to Sparta, in-

36-37. Why did the Achæan league draw allies to it? Outline the history of Aratus. What of his war with the Lacedæmonians? 38. What occurred at Mantinea? 39. What of Nabis?

duced the citizens to enter the league (191). At the age of seventy he was made prisoner by the Messenians and basely put to death. He was mourned as "the last of the Greeks" (183).

40. Some time after his death the Achæan league continued the leading power in Greece. Athens and Thebes had sunk into unimportance. Dissensions arose, however; the Romans came in, and, under Mummius, crushed them at Leucopetra. Diæus, the Achæan general, perished by his own hand after slaying his wife and children. Corinth was given up to fire and pillage (146); every man found in it was put to the sword, and the women and children were sold into slavery. The Achæan league was dissolved; the walls of the confederate cities were destroyed, and Greece became the Roman province of Achaia.

41. **Grecian Art and Literature.**—The world owes more to the literature of Greece than to that of any other people. In poetry, philosophy, history, rhetoric, and mathematical science the Greeks are unsurpassed; while the works of their sculptors are, even in their fragments, the wonder and the envy of all time. There is no greater epic than Homer's *Iliad*; no higher drama than the drama of Æschylus and Sophocles, Euripides and Aristophanes. Socrates inspired the philosophy to which Plato gave expression, and Aristotle gave everlasting fame to logic. Thucydides, Herodotus, and Xenophon are models for historians. The orations of Demosthenes were never equalled. To Euclid we owe the science of geometry. There is no branch in literature where the Greeks do not stand unrivalled. Grecian refinement in manners, art, and literature attained its zenith in the brilliant age of Pericles, at which time Athens became the intellectual centre of the states.

What was the end of Philopœmen? 40. What occurred at Leucopetra? What was the fate of Corinth? What did Greece become? 41. In what did the Greeks excel? Mention some of the most eminent names.

ROMAN HISTORY.

THE MONARCHY.

CHAPTER I.

SECTION I. Romulus and his first Three Successors (753-616 B.C.)

1. **Foundation of Rome ; its earliest Inhabitants.**—The city of Rome on the Tiber was called after its founder, Romulus (B.C. 753), reputed to be a descendant of Æneas. He divided the Roman territory into three portions : one he consecrated to the support of religion and its ministers, another to the wants of the state, and a third he divided among his companions. These with their children formed the true Roman people, and were called patricians. The other inhabitants of the city were those who chose it as their residence. They were called plebeians and had only the right of freedom, the patricians having control over all the affairs of state.

2. Romulus divided the people into three tribes, each comprising ten *curiæ* of one hundred and ten men. These assembled in the *forum*, or public place, to select their magistrates, make laws, declare war or peace, and deliver judgment, against which there was no appeal. Many of the plebeians chose them for *patrons*, becoming their *clients*. These relations involved mutual obligations, clientage being really a sort of vassalage.

3. **The first Government.**—Romulus chose a hundred of

1. Who founded Rome ? How was Rome divided ? Describe the social divisions of the Romans. 2. What was a *curia* ? Where did the *curiæ* assemble, and for what purpose ? Describe the difference between *patrons* and *clients*.

the more distinguished heads of families to deliberate on public affairs and assist him in the government. This was called the *senate*, or council of the ancients. From it were chosen the principal civil and military officers. As members died out new names were added to the list, whence the title "conscript fathers." As the state grew Romulus increased the number of senators to two hundred. Later on, under Tarquin the Elder, they were increased to three hundred, and to a thousand in the last days of the republic. Romulus established a body-guard of three hundred horsemen. This was the origin of a third order, the equestrian, or knights, coming between the patricians and plebeians.

4. War with the Sabines.—Under the able rule of Romulus the city rapidly grew in power. It consisted for the most part of a band of resolute men. These needed wives. Romulus sent to the neighboring city of the Sabines to contract matrimonial alliances. The proposal was received with scorn. So Romulus captured the Sabine maidens by stratagem. War ensued, and was finally put an end to by the Sabine women rushing between their husbands and their relatives and reconciling both. The Romans and Sabines then became one people, with Rome for capital. After many other successes Romulus was finally slain by the senators, either through jealousy of his power or because of his despotism.

5. Numa Pompilius (714-672) and his Laws.—For a year the senate governed, and then chose Numa Pompilius, of Sabine origin, for king. He was renowned for his wisdom and humanity. He cultivated the finer qualities of his people, inculcated morality, helped industry, and punished idleness. He was the real founder of the Roman

3. Describe the senate and its office. How did the senate vary? Who were the knights? 4. How did the Romans win their brides? 5. Who succeeded Romulus? For what was Numa famed?

religion, and erected an altar to Faith. He cultivated the taste for farming, and established feasts in honor of the god Terminus, who presided over the boundaries of the fields. He also built a temple to the two-faced Janus, who was supposed to see the past and the future. This temple, which was to be closed during peace, was only closed three times before Christ: during Numa's reign; in 235, after the first Punic war; and in the year 30, after the battle of Actium.

6. Tullus Hostilius (672-640); the Horatii and Curiatii.—Tullus Hostilius succeeded Numa. He was a war-like monarch, and difficulties soon arose between the Romans and their neighbors, the Albans. As the armies drew up in line of battle it was agreed to decide the day by a combat between three champions chosen from each side. For the Romans the three brothers Horatii fought; for the Albans the three Curiatii.

7. At the onset two of the Horatii were slain and the three Curiatii wounded. Horatius, unwounded, retreated, and, dividing the brothers, attacked and slew them singly. Returning to Rome at the head of the army, he was met by his sister, who cursed him for slaying her betrothed, one of the Curiatii. In a fit of fury he slew her and was condemned to death; but at the moment of execution the eloquent appeal of his father prevailed over the people and he was spared. The Albans, who at first submitted, again revolted, and Tullus razed their city to the ground, annexing the people to Rome.

8. Ancus Marcius (640-616).—Ancus Marcius, grandson of Numa, succeeded Hostilius. He was as pious as he was brave. While repelling all outside attacks he revived in Rome respect for religion, laws, and institutions. He

How often was the temple of Janus closed? 6. Who succeeded Numa? With whom did the Romans quarrel? 7. Describe the combat of the Horatii and Curiatii. 8. Who succeeded T. Hostilius? For what is Ancus Marcius famed?

built the city and harbor of Ostia, near the mouth of the Tiber, thus laying the first foundation of Rome's subsequent maritime commerce.

SECTION II. The Last Three Kings (616-509 B.C.)

9. Tarquin the Elder (616-578).—Tarquin, the tutor of the royal children, and a man of wealth, capacity, and power, supplanted them and ascended the throne. He was an Etruscan by birth, and Etruria was at that time the most civilized state in Italy. Tarquin introduced the magnificence of their ceremonials and habits into Rome. He erected many temples and laid the foundation of the Capitol. He built aqueducts to supply the city with water, and sewers to drain it. In the midst of his triumphs he was assassinated at the instigation of the sons of Ancus. The people rushed to the palace; Tanaquil, the widow, told them the king was not dead, but bade them obey Servius Tullius, his son-in-law, until he could reappear. A few days after Servius, seeing his authority well established, announced the death of the king and proceeded to reign.

10. Servius Tullius (578-534); his Reforms.—Servius vanquished the Etruscans, and, making an alliance with the Latins, enlarged the city of Rome by including within its limits two hills in addition to the five it already contained. He divided it into four quarters, or tribes, called *urban tribes*. The territory around Rome was divided into twenty-six tribes, called *rural tribes*. The Romans were also divided into six *classes* and one hundred and ninety-five *centuries*, according to their possessions.

11. Up to this time the *comitia*, or political meetings of the Romans, were held by *curias* in the forum. The patricians alone had the right of casting votes, which were

9. How did Tarquin ascend the throne? What did he do in Rome? What befell him? 10. What did Servius Tullius add to Rome? How did he divide the territory and people?

counted by polls. With the expansion of the people and growth of the state it became necessary to alter this. Servius decreed that in future the *comitia* should be held by *centuries* in the Field of Mars, each century counting for one vote. The plebeians also were permitted to vote, and were given all the rights of citizenship. Political power was thus distributed more widely and wisely than it ever had been before; but as the centuries were ranged according to their possessions, the preponderance of power lay with the wealthy class. The patricians constituted the first *class*; but this class alone counted ninety-eight centuries, the other five classes having only ninety-five.

12. The Romans from the earliest times were possessed with the genius of government and rule, which accounts in great measure for this little people so speedily expanding into masters of the world. Servius, to provide against accidents, ordered a *census*, or registering, to be renewed every five years. This maintained an equilibrium. Those who had suffered from loss of fortune went into a lower century; those who had advanced, into a higher. The taking of the *census* was preceded by a religious purificatory ceremony called *lustration*; hence every period of five years was termed a *lustration*, much as the Greeks named their periods *Olympiads*. The first census, taken in B.C. 576, showed that the Romans had eighty-seven thousand freemen able to bear arms.

13. Servius was beloved by the Romans; but envy and ambition were at work. Tarquin, his son-in-law, and grandson of the elder Tarquin, aspired to power, and was urged on to it by his wife, Tullia. He gained over a portion of the senate and was proclaimed king. Servius, now an old man, hastened to the senate without his guards. Tarquin

11. Describe some of Servius' reforms. How did the patricians predominate? 12. Describe the process of the census. What was a *lustration*? What did the first census show? 13. Describe the overthrow of Servius.

seized him, hurled him from the steps, and bade his followers slay him. Tullia, riding to greet her husband, bade her charioteer drive over the bleeding corpse of her father, whence the street was named *Via Scelerata*, from the crime.

14. Tarquin the Proud (534-509); his Overthrow.—Tarquin's reign was a series of cruelties and exactions. He was nevertheless a man of vigor and capacity. He completed the Capitol, gained many victories over the neighboring peoples, and enlarged his dominion. Many prodigies are recorded to have occurred in his reign, among others the purchase by him of the *Sibylline books*, which were placed in the Capitol and consulted in Rome as the oracle of Delphi was in Greece. They were said to have contained predictions of the future of the Roman people, and even of the coming of Christ.

15. Lucretia, the wife of Tarquin Collatinus, nephew of the king, was a woman of great worth and virtue. Tarquin's son, Sextus, was moved with passion for her, and, failing to win her love, committed an outrage on her person. Next day Lucretia summoned her father, husband, and kinsmen, told them the story of her wrong, and, praying them to avenge her, stabbed herself in their presence. Among the kinsmen was Brutus, nephew of Tarquin, long deemed a simpleton, but concealing great qualities and purpose under this guise. His nearest of kin had been slain by Tarquin in order to gain their wealth. He had all along resolved on avenging the wrong, and now, raising aloft the bloody dagger, he swore to avenge Lucretia and pursue to death the race of Tarquin. All took the oath and hastened to the city. They roused the people with their awful tale. Rome revolted; the king and all his family were banished and retired to Etruria.

14. For what was Tarquin's reign remarkable? What building was completed by him? What were the Sibylline books? 15. Tell the story of Lucretia. What of Brutus? What befell the Tarquins?

THE REPUBLIC.

THIS epoch, covering four hundred and eighty years, is divided into three periods. The first (B.C. 509–264) embraces the feuds between the patricians and the plebeians, and the conquest of central and northern Italy; the second (B.C. 264–133) is marked by the wars of Rome with Carthage and her allies; the third (B.C. 133–29) by the last conquests and civil wars of the Romans.

CHAPTER I.

FEUDS AND CONQUESTS IN ITALY (509–264 B.C.)

SECTION I. The Consulate (509 B.C.); the Dictatorship (493 B.C.); the Tribunes of the People (493 B.C.)

1. The Consulate.—The patricians, weary of kingly rule, changed the monarchy to a republic; but they resolved on keeping the governing power in their own hands. Two of their number were elected consuls and endowed with power almost equal to that of the kings; but they only held office for one year. Each consul governed alternately every month. To appease the plebeians the lands which had formed the patrimony of the banished king were distributed among them. Brutus and Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia, were the first consuls chosen.

2. Collatinus, proposing to restore all their possessions to the Tarquins, was compelled to abdicate. Brutus was true to the republic, and himself condemned his two sons to death for conspiring to re-establish royalty. He presided at their execution. Marching against the Etruscans, who were under the command of one of Tarquin's sons, Brutus and the latter met, and both received mortal wounds. The consul's body was taken in pomp to Rome,

1. What caused the overthrow of the Roman monarchy? What was the office of consul? Name the first consuls. 2. What of Collatinus? How did Brutus act? What was his end?

and for a year the Roman mothers remained in mourning to lament the avenger of chastity.

3. Lars Porsenna and Horatius Cocles.—Tarquin roused all the Etruscan cities against Rome. Lars Porsenna, King of Clusium, suddenly appeared before the city at the head of a powerful army. Rome was saved by the heroism of Horatius Cocles, who defended a bridge over which the enemy had to pass until his comrades had time to break it down. Then, throwing himself armed into the Tiber, he swam across in safety.

4. Mutius Scævola.—Porsenna besieged the city and barely escaped from the dagger of Mutius Scævola, a young Roman, who had penetrated the camp to slay him. Porsenna threatened to have him tortured, when the young man smilingly held his right hand over a brazier until it was consumed, and then told the general that three hundred of his fellows had sworn to slay the enemy of their country. Porsenna hastened to sign a peace and departed.

5. The plebeians soon found that they suffered more from patrician than from royal rule. Instead of one master they had thousands. They became impoverished from constant wars and taxations, while they were ground down by tyranny. The laws against debtors were extremely harsh and were enforced to the letter. Revolt ensued, whence the office of *dictator* was established.

6. The Dictatorship (498); Battle of Lake Regillus (495).—The dictator, named by the consuls and approved by the people, was endowed with absolute power; but he only remained in office six months, nor was he created save on the most extraordinary emergencies. Lartius, the first dictator, appeased the people and restored union

3. What course did Tarquin pursue? Tell of Horatius Cocles. 4. What of Mutius Scævola? 5. How did the office of dictator originate? 6. Describe the power and limits of the dictator.

in the republic. He defeated the Sabines and Latins near Lake Regillus. The remaining son of Tarquin was slain there; and the old king, wounded, sought shelter with the tyrant of Cumæ, where he died.

7. The cause of Tarquin being finally ruined, the patricians redoubled their exactions at home. The people revolted, declaring that they would no longer bear arms for such proud and avaricious masters. They withdrew in a body from the city to a mountain three miles distant, afterwards called the Sacred Mount. This alarmed the senate, who sent deputies to them, and on a promise of amendment in the laws they agreed to return.

8. **Tribunes of the People.**—The plebeians demanded the appointment of magistrates chosen by themselves to represent their interests. These were called the “tribunes of the people.” First two, afterwards ten, were chosen for one year. They had authority only within the city’s limits. Their person was inviolable, their power of the highest. By a single *veto* they could suspend the judgment of all the magistrates and the decrees of the senate. This resulted in handing over the majority in the comitia to the people.

9. **Coriolanus.**—Coriolanus, so named from the capture of Corioli, a Volscian city, was a young patrician of high courage and rare military qualities. In the disputes with the people he was a strong upholder of the authority of the senate. The tribunes of the people finally decreed his exile. He had rendered great services to the state, and his banishment filled him with resentment. He went over to the Volsci, and soon returned to Rome at the head of a powerful army (489).

10. The city was in consternation, and deputies were

Who fought at Lake Regillus? The result? 7. Describe the dissensions in Rome. 8. Describe the office and limits of the tribunes of the people. 9. Tell the story of Coriolanus.

sent out recalling him from banishment and suing for peace. Nothing could move him, until at last came Veturia, his mother, accompanied by Volumnia, his wife, leading by the hand her two children and followed by a crowd of noble matrons. The conqueror was conquered by them; but, refusing to re-enter Rome, he passed the rest of his life in sad retirement among the Volsci.

11. Quintius Cincinnatus (458).—The period between the exile of Coriolanus and the dictatorship of Cincinnatus was consumed in wars with the neighboring peoples or internal disputes. In one of these wars the consul Minutius was surrounded by the Æqui. Rome was alarmed, and Quintius Cincinnatus was appointed dictator for the emergency. At the time of his appointment he was living and working on his farm.

12. Leaving his plough, he returned to Rome, revived the courage of the people, gathered an army, and, marching against the enemy with the utmost speed, defeated them, and re-entered Rome laden with booty. Having liberated the army, beaten the enemy, and saved the state, he resigned his dictatorship and went back to his farm. It was such examples and such qualities as these that gave vitality to the Roman republic.

SECTION II. The Decemviri (450-449 B.C.); the Censorship (444 B.C.); Military Tribunes; Wars with the Veientes and the Gauls.

13. Tyranny of the Decemviri.—Up to this time jurisprudence was in a very poor condition in Rome, the magistrates on their own responsibility deciding the most important cases at law. So three deputies were sent to Greece to collect a system of law beneficial to the republic. On their return ten commissioners—*decemviri*—were ap-

10. How was Coriolanus overcome? 11. Why was Cincinnatus called to Rome? 12. How did Cincinnatus act? 13. For what were deputies sent to Greece? Who were the decemviri?

pointed for one year to draw up a code. For the first term of office they behaved well, but, once confirmed in power, they became tyrants, against whose action there was no appeal, for all the other magisterial offices had been abolished.

14. Downfall of the Decemviri.—Their power was at length broken through an act of criminal outrage on the part of Appius Claudius, one of their number. Wishing to possess himself of the person of Virginia, a young Roman maiden, her father, a soldier, slew her rather than surrender her to dishonor. The soldiers took up their comrade's cause, revolted, and the people again retired to the Sacred Mount. The senate promised to restore their tribunes, proclaimed a general amnesty, banished the decemviri, and confiscated their property. Appius died in prison.

15. Laws of the Twelve Tables.—The laws of the decemviri are known as the Laws of the Twelve Tables, because they were engraved on twelve brazen tablets. They were a completion and collection of the old Roman usages regarding religion, the family, and property. The father had absolute control, even to life and death, over his household. The new laws recognized the principle of the equality of all citizens irrespective of persons. They forbade, however, intermarriage between patricians and plebeians, and excluded the latter from the high offices of state. The clause preventing intermarriage was afterwards withdrawn.

16. The Censorship.—The power of the consuls was divided up. Two censors were appointed, who relieved the consuls of many of their functions, and whose duty it was to take the census every five years. They were guardians of morals, and the office became one of the most impor-

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14. What caused the overthrow of the decemviri? How was it accomplished?
15. Describe the Laws of the Twelve Tables. 16. Who were the censors, and what was their office?

tant in the state. For a long period it was well filled, being conferred on only the most illustrious citizens.

17. Military Tribunes.—The disputes between senate and people continued. The tribunes maintained that one of the two consuls should be chosen from among the people, and after a prolonged resistance they gained their point. New magistrates, to the number of from three to six, were appointed to supersede the consuls. They were called military tribunes, were invested with consular power, and were chosen indifferently from both orders. The plebeians, having gained the concession, as a rule chose only patricians.

18. Under the military tribunes the Roman army first began to receive pay from the state. Formerly the people had to serve at their own expense, which was a great grievance and source of suffering. The pay at first was about five cents a day. The number of *quæstors*, charged with levying taxes and guarding the public treasury, was increased. A *quæstor* was sent to each province to attend to the finances. He was thus an important personage, and was elected in the *comitia by tribes*.

19. Camillus; Invasion of the Gauls.—The pay of the soldiers fixed, military expeditions on an extensive scale were planned. Veii, the capital of the Veientes, one of the strongest places in Italy and a rival of Rome, fell, after a long siege, to the genius of Camillus, the dictator (405-395). Falerii was the next to fall (391). The brilliancy of his exploits aroused such envy that he was compelled to flee the city. He had scarcely departed when the inhabitants of Clusium, besieged by the Gauls, appealed to the Romans for help. A rash act on the part of one of the Roman ambassadors brought the Gauls down on Rome itself. The Roman army was defeated at the Allia, and

17. Why were military tribunes created? How were they chosen? 18. How was the army organized? Who were the *quæstors*? 19. Who took Veii? Who invaded Rome?

the Gauls stayed three days to collect the booty. The Roman youth shut themselves up in the Capitol, resolved to defend it to the last. The city was deserted save by old men, whom the Gauls massacred. They set fire to the city and almost surprised the Capitol, which was saved by the cackling of some geese, who gave warning of the enemy's approach.

20. Meanwhile Camillus, forgetting his resentment, gathered together the wreck of the Roman army, defeated a marauding detachment of the Gauls, and hastened to raise the siege. While negotiations for the surrender were going on between the Gauls and Romans Camillus came upon them and utterly routed them. The conqueror was honored as the saviour of his country and the second founder of Rome.

SECTION III. Political Equality of Patricians and Plebeians; Local and Foreign Wars.

21. End of Political Disputes.—Rome rebuilt and freed from the Gauls, the old disputes between patrician and plebeian broke out anew. The disputes resolved themselves into various changes of offices, the plebeians always gaining their point in the end, until finally all offices, even the priesthood, became common to the two orders, and the internal dissensions were healed.

22. The Latins conquered.—United Rome now set about the conquest of all Italy. The Latins, who had long been the allies or vassals of Rome, revolted and claimed an equal share in honor and authority with the Romans. The Roman answer was a declaration of war. The armies were well matched in discipline and valor. The battle was fought near Mount Vesuvius. After a stubborn struggle

19. Tell of the Gauls in Rome. 20. How and by whom was Rome saved?
21. How was the civil strife in Rome healed? 22. What occasioned the war with the Latins? How did it end?

the left wing of the Romans, commanded by the consul Decius, began to give way, when their flight was arrested by the devotion of Decius, who, invoking the aid of the gods in behalf of Rome, rushed into the thickest of the fight and fell covered with wounds. The Romans, inspired by such an example, returned to the charge. The Latins were defeated with a loss of three-fourths of their army, and, after other reverses, finally submitted. They were treated with wise clemency, admitted as Roman citizens, and thus incorporated with the republic.

23. War between the Romans and the Samnites.—Another war followed immediately with the Samnites, allies of the Romans. The Campanians, attacked by the Samnites, made themselves subject to Rome, and thus brought on the struggle. The Romans conquered, but at last the imprudence of the consuls, Veturius and Posthumius, brought on them the most signal disgrace Roman arms had ever known. Pontius, the Samnite general, lured the legions into a narrow defile, where they were at the mercy of the enemy. They were compelled to lay down their arms and pass under the yoke—the sign of greatest disgrace—in presence of the Samnite army. This is known as the battle of the Caudine Forks. The army marched silently back to Rome, which it entered at dead of night.

24. The Romans refused to be bound by the disgraceful conditions agreed on. They appointed Papirius Cursor and Publius, two of their best generals, consuls; raised new armies, and in a short time totally defeated the Samnites, making Pontius himself and his troops pass under the yoke. The war, however, struggled on for forty-nine years, and was only put an end to by the consul Curius. The Samnites submitted, as did also the Etruscans; and now

Describe the devotion of Decius. 23. What led to the war with the Samnites? What occurred at the Caudine Forks? 24. How did the Romans take their defeat? What was the end of the war?

Rome was mistress of all southern Italy just as she was compelled to face a dangerous foreign foe (290).

25. Pyrrhus (280).—This was Pyrrhus, King of Epirus, whose exploits have already been given (see p. 87). A dispute arose between the Romans and the people of Tarentum, who invoked the aid of Pyrrhus. The Romans refused to accept his arbitration and offered him battle at Heraclea. They were defeated, but the battle cost Pyrrhus so dear that he said: "Another such victory and we are undone." The Romans sent out another army, and Pyrrhus, seeing the men he had to deal with, himself made overtures of peace. They were rejected, and Pyrrhus was defeated by Curius at Beneventum. Thus, after nearly five hundred years of struggle, Rome was pre-eminent in Italy and had carried her arms into Sicily.

CHAPTER II.

WAR AGAINST CARTHAGE AND HER ALLIES.

SECTION I. First Punic War (264-241 B.C.)

1. Roman Victories.—Interference in Sicily brought the Romans into collision with the Carthaginians. An excuse for hostilities was easily found, and the famous Punic wars began (264)—called Punic from an old name of the Carthaginians. The Romans met with success, defeated and won over Hiero, tyrant of Syracuse, who became their fast ally, and besieged and captured Agrigentum, the Carthaginian arsenal (262).

2. The first Roman Navy.—But Carthage was a naval power, and Rome had no fleet. In two months she built

25. What new foe had Rome to face? Describe the campaigns with Pyrrhus. How did Rome now stand? 1. What led to the Punic wars? 2. What was the origin of the first Roman navy?

one of one hundred and twenty vessels, using a stranded Carthaginian galley as model. The consul Duilius took command and went in search of the Carthaginians. As soon as he came up with them he grappled their vessels by an invention designed for that purpose, and compelled them to fight at close quarters. The victory was complete and Duilius received a triumph.

3. The Romans invade Africa.—In the ninth year of the war the Romans, who always did things thoroughly, resolved on attacking the Carthaginians in their own country. Regulus began by winning a victory which cost the Carthaginians one hundred vessels. He landed in Africa and seized the port and city of Clypea (256). He went on from victory to victory until the Carthaginians were compelled to sue for peace. This he only agreed to grant on the harshest terms, and the people, driven to desperation, resolved to defend themselves to the last. Xantippus, a famous Lacedæmonian, was put in command. Regulus was defeated, his army destroyed, and himself made prisoner.

4. Heroism of Regulus.—He was sent to Rome to treat for an exchange of prisoners, on the understanding that he would return if the Carthaginian proposals were rejected. When urged to give his opinion in the senate he advised no exchange, on the ground that the Carthaginian prisoners were in the flower of their youth, while he was too old to be of any further service to his country. The senate reluctantly accepted the sacrifice of Regulus, who, true to his word, returned to Carthage to endure torture and death.

5. Final Defeat of Carthage.—His death was a new incentive to the war. The Romans suffered many reverses and inflicted others on their enemy. After twenty-three years

Who was the first Roman admiral, and what was his exploit? 3. Describe the campaigns of Regulus. By whom was he defeated? 4. What was Regulus' advice to the senate? What befell him?

of varying fortune the consul Lutatius Catullus ended the war by the capture of Lilybæum, the strongest city in Sicily, and by the destruction of the Carthaginian navy off the Ægates islands (241). Carthage sued for peace, and Rome, which had suffered severely, gladly consented. The Carthaginians had to evacuate Sicily and all the islands between Italy and Africa, to pay tribute to the Romans, and never make war against Hiero of Syracuse or any ally of Rome. Sicily thus became the first *province* of Rome.

6. Hamilcar.—Carthage, being essentially a naval and mercantile power, hired mercenaries to fight its battles. The mercenaries, not having been paid, marched against Carthage. The city at the same time was rent by two rival factions, the one wishing peace and the other war. The peace party was led by the mercantile family of the Hannos, the war party by the Barca family. As the mercenaries were marching on the city the war party gained the ascendant, and Hamilcar Barca was ordered to defend Carthage. He was an able general, and, after a three years' war, so defeated the rebels that not one escaped.

7. Hamilcar's power was so pre-eminent that his countrymen, always deceitful, sent him to conquer Numidia and Mauritania, in the hope that he would be lost in the attempt. He succeeded, returned in triumph, and set out for the conquest of Spain. After more successes he was defeated and slain by the warlike tribe of the *Celtiberi* (232). His son-in-law, Hasdrubal, pushed his conquests, and his son, Hannibal, was destined for still greater achievements.

8. Second Invasion of the Gauls.—While the Carthaginians were engaged with the mercenaries the Romans seized Corsica and Sardinia. Rome being now without an enemy in the field, the temple of Janus was closed (235) for the first

5. How did the first Punic war end? What did Sicily become? 6. What followed at Carthage? Who defeated the mercenaries? 7. Describe the further exploits of Hamilcar and his death.

time since the reign of Numa Pompilius. It was soon opened. The Gauls came down from beyond the Po. The Roman prophecies always spoke with dread of these barbarians. Near Cape Telamon, within three days' march of Rome, the Romans met the invading host, and their disciplined valor prevailed over the ferocious courage of the barbarians (225).

9. The Romans followed up their victory, crossed the Po for the first time, and seized Milan, the capital of the Insubres (223). The Alpine Gauls, called *Gesates* from their skill with the javelin, poured down to assist their countrymen; but they were cut to pieces, and their king, Viridomar, was slain by Marcellus, the consul (222). This gave the Romans command over the north of Italy.

10. Wealth and power began to tell disastrously on the character of the Romans. Public morals were on the decline. About the time of the Punic wars theatrical exhibitions of a degrading character and the combats of gladiators in the arena were introduced. The decay of public virtue had set in.

SECTION II. Second Punic War; Hannibal.

11. **Hannibal in Command.**—The second Punic war began twenty-two years after the first. It was one of the most famous in antiquity. The taking of Sardinia and Corsica was the occasion. Saguntum, an Italian city and colony, threatened by Hasdrubal, put itself under the protection of Rome. The Romans compelled Hasdrubal to respect Saguntum and limit his conquests to the banks of the Ebro. With his death soon after the command of the Carthaginians fell to Hannibal. He was only twenty-five at the time. He saw that it was a question between Rome and Carthage, and at

8. What came of the second Gallic invasion? 9. How did the Romans acquire northern Italy? 10. What was the state of public morals at this time? 11. What led to the second Punic war? Who commanded the Carthaginians?

once laid siege to Saguntum with an army of one hundred and fifty thousand men. In a short time it fell, and, the Carthaginians disregarding the remonstrances of Rome, war ensued.

12. Hannibal in Italy.—Hannibal burnt Saguntum to the ground and passed over into Italy. In all history there is not a march more conspicuous in military annals. Through a hostile country he carried his army, composed in the main of mercenaries, over the Pyrenees, the Rhone, the Alps. The hostile tribes that met him he overcame in battle or won over by promises. He burst upon Italy and swept before him the Roman forces, who, under Scipio, the consul, opposed him near the Ticinus. Sempronius came to Scipio's aid, and another battle was fought near the Trebia, with a result still more disastrous to Rome (218).

13. Hannibal advanced into the heart of Italy. Flaminius met him near Lake Trasimenus in a disadvantageous position into which the Carthaginian had decoyed him. The Romans fought with great courage, but with the death of Flaminius they fled (217).

14. Fabius; Battle of Cannæ (216).—Thus were three Roman armies beaten in succession, and consternation set in at Rome. Fabius, a wary man, was chosen dictator. He risked no engagement, but watched Hannibal and harassed him on his march.

15. Paulus Æmilius and Varro were appointed consuls. Varro was impatient at the Fabian tactics of delay. Emboldened by some small successes, he ventured battle at Cannæ. The result was the most disastrous defeat that the Romans had ever sustained, the consul Æmilius being among the slain.

16. Siege of Capua (211).—Hannibal for some reason de-

12. How did Hannibal invade Italy? Whom did he defeat? 13. What occurred at Lake Trasimenus? 14. What was the policy of Fabius? 15. What occurred at Cannæ?

layed his march on Rome, and this probably saved the city, if not the empire. He went into winter quarters at Capua, where his warriors became enervated by a luxurious life after their hard battles and marches. Capua was a rich ally of Rome that had gone over to the conqueror.

17. Hannibal's delay gave the Romans time to recruit, and the defection of Capua deeply exasperated them. They assembled an army and besieged the city, the proconsuls Fulvius and Appius being in command. Hannibal vainly strove to break the lines, and the Capuans, notwithstanding a brave defence, were soon reduced to the last extremity. Hannibal then made a diversion on Rome, but it failed to draw off the besieging force. Thence he withdrew to Tarentum, and Capua was compelled to yield. The inhabitants were punished with great severity. The city was to all intents and purposes destroyed.

18. Capture of Syracuse.—During the siege of Capua Syracuse also fell to the Romans. After the death of Hiero it had submitted to the Carthaginians. Marcellus, the consul, crossed over and attacked it. It was defended by the engineering skill of Archimedes, the greatest mathematician of antiquity, who invented extraordinary machines to protect the city and destroy the Romans. The siege was turned to a blockade. For three years it was prolonged, and was only finally taken by surprise. Archimedes was slain while solving a mathematical problem, to the great sorrow of Marcellus (212). The whole island of Sicily then passed under the sway of the Romans.

19. War in Spain; the Scipios.—The war raged in Spain also. There Publius Scipio and his brother, Cneus, won great victories over the Carthaginians. Emboldened by success, they divided their armies, the more easily to achieve the

16. Where did Hannibal winter? 17. What was the fate of Capua? 18. What occurred at Syracuse? What famous man was killed there? 19. Who commanded the Romans in Spain?

conquest of the country. The Carthaginian generals united their forces, and, attacking the brothers separately, defeated them, both the Scipios being slain (212).

20. Scipio Africanus.—Spain seemed lost, and no candidate presented himself for the proconsulship. Thereupon a young man of twenty-four, Publius Cornelius Scipio, son of Publius, came forward and said he would undertake to avenge the death of his father and uncle and the defeat of the armies. He was appointed. The appointment was a fortunate one. He soon took the great city of New Carthage and won over the tribes of the country. He conquered the Carthaginian generals and drove them out of Spain (211-207).

21. Defeat and Death of Hasdrubal.—Hasdrubal, brother of Hannibal, eluded Scipio, and with a large army crossed the Alps and entered Italy with a view to joining Hannibal. He was met near the Metaurus by the two consuls, and, after an obstinate combat, defeated in the bloodiest battle of the war (207). Hasdrubal, seeing the day lost, rushed into the midst of the enemy and perished.

22. The consul Nero, returning to his command in front of Hannibal, threw the head of Hasdrubal into the enemy's camp. This was the first news that Hannibal received of the defeat, and he gave up the cause of Carthage as lost. He retired to the province of Brutium, where for a long time he maintained his army unaided by the government.

23. Scipio in Africa (203).—Scipio, after driving the Carthaginians from Spain, returned to Rome in triumph. He was made consul and sent to Sicily (205). He was allowed to pass over into Africa, his conviction being that the surest way of destroying the power of Carthage was by destroying Carthage itself. Two Carthaginian armies were sent against

20. Who was Scipio Africanus? What did he do in Spain? 21. Describe the battle of Metaurus. 22. Whither did Hannibal retire? 23. What was Scipio's plan?

him : one commanded by Hasdrubal, the other by Syphax, a Numidian prince.

24. The Carthaginian camps were carelessly guarded. Scipio, learning this, sent Lælius, his lieutenant, and Masinissa, an ally, against Syphax, while he himself made for the camp of Hasdrubal. The camp of Syphax was set on fire and most of the Numidians slain by the soldiers of Masinissa. Hasdrubal's troops, seeing the conflagration and attributing it to accident, rushed to the succor of their allies and were destroyed by Scipio. Hasdrubal's camp was then attacked and set fire to. Of the Carthaginian host only two thousand were left.

25. Hannibal recalled ; Battle of Zama (202).—Hannibal was recalled to Carthage. He left Italy, lamenting his supineness after Cannæ. Returning to Africa and seeing the spent strength of his own country opposed to the Roman power, he asked for peace. The famous generals met, but Scipio refused to accept Hannibal's conditions. A battle ensued, in which Hannibal was completely defeated and fled with a few horsemen to Carthage. He advised his countrymen to make peace at any price.

26. They took his advice. Scipio's conditions were that the Carthaginians should restrict themselves to Africa ; deliver up their vessels, save ten ; pay to Rome ten thousand talents of silver within fifty years, and wage no war without Rome's permission. The kingdom of Syphax was given to Masinissa. Scipio, having completed his triumphs, returned to Rome and was given the surname of *Africanus* in memory of his conquest. Hannibal, exiled from Carthage by demand of Rome, continued to intrigue against that power. He found refuge at the court of Antiochus the Great, and persuaded that monarch to declare war against Rome. On

24. Describe Scipio's victory. 25. What occasioned Hannibal's recall? What occurred at Zama? 26. What were Scipio's conditions of peace? Why was he called Africanus?

the defeat of Antiochus Hannibal's surrender was demanded. He then fled to Prusias, King of Bithynia, and intrigued there. His surrender was insisted on by Rome, and rather than fall into the hands of his implacable enemies he took poison (183).

SECTION III. Third Punic War (149-146 B.C.)

27. Rome and the Allies of Carthage.—Hannibal being gone, the Romans turned their arms against his allies—Philip of Macedon, Antiochus the Great of Syria, and Perseus, Philip's successor. Macedonia was conquered and became a Roman province (see p. 88). The Gauls, who had fought under Hannibal, still held out, but were finally subdued, and their country also became a Roman province (163) under the name of Cisalpine Gaul.

28. Destruction of Carthage (146).—Rome was now mistress not only of Italy but of the neighboring countries. She saw with anxiety Carthage emerging from her disasters and again growing rich and powerful. She resolved on destroying it. She was urged to this step by Cato the Elder, who was sent as an envoy to Carthage, and, seeing its opulence after such great reverses, came back to Rome with the one phrase on his lips: "Carthage must be destroyed."

29. In pursuing this policy the Romans were extremely harsh. They rejected all overtures of peace, and the Carthaginians, driven to desperation, resolved on defending their city to the last. They made most extraordinary efforts of defence and extraordinary sacrifices, men and women toiling together night and day. The consuls, not dreaming of stout resistance from the broken power, advanced confidently to Carthage. They were deceived.

What was the fate of Hannibal? 27. Whom did the Romans next attack? 28. What occasioned the third Punic war? 29. What action did the Carthaginians take?

The siege was maintained for two years, and Rome began to doubt the issue of the war which it had wantonly provoked.

30. Scipio Æmilianus was finally appointed consul. He was a young man, distinguished both for his virtues and his family connections, being a son of the conqueror of Perseus, and, by adoption, the grandson of Scipio Africanus. He first restored discipline among the demoralized Roman troops and then invested the city. A dreadful famine broke out among the inhabitants. Scipio stormed the ramparts and advanced into the heart of the city. He met with a most obstinate resistance, which was prolonged for six days and nights. The carnage was frightful, and on the seventh day seventy thousand Carthaginians accepted quarter.

31. Carthage was ended; its dependencies submitted to the Romans; and Scipio, on his return to Rome, received with his triumph the surname of Africanus (146). In the same year Corinth fell to the Roman arms, the league of the Achæans was dissolved, and Greece was reduced to a Roman province.

32. Siege and Fall of Numantia (141-133).—Spain was still turbulent and refused to submit to the Roman yoke. The men sent to govern it were not of the best. Under the lead of Viriathus the people rose and inflicted severe losses on the Romans. The latter, unable to conquer him, treacherously caused him to be assassinated. Numantia alone defeated a Roman army vastly its superior in numbers, and forced it to conclude a dishonorable peace.

33. Scipio Æmilianus was appointed consul and sent out to Spain. He found the army totally disorganized. He speedily restored discipline, and then set out for the siege

30. Describe the siege of Carthage. 31. What important events occurred simultaneously with the fall of Carthage? 32. Who held out in Spain? 33. Tell of the siege and fall of Numantia.

of Numantia. He invested it and caused a famine in the city, so that the inhabitants at last fed on human flesh. The city was taken. The people in great part chose self-destruction rather than renounce their freedom. Scipio, reserving fifty for his triumph, sold the rest into slavery, levelled the city to the ground, and distributed its lands among the neighboring tribes.

CHAPTER III.

CIVIL WARS AND LAST CONQUESTS (133–29 B.C.)

SECTION I. *The Gracchi; Jugurtha; Marius.*

1. The Gracchi.—While Scipio was fighting in Spain there were grave and bloody dissensions in Rome. These arose from the ambition of the two Gracchi, sons of Cornelia, the daughter of the first Scipio Africanus. They were endowed with great gifts but greater ambition. The struggle originated about a land law called Agrarian. This law, proposed by the plebeian tribunes, deprived the wealthy of certain lands that had come down to them, and distributed these among the indigent. There was probably some reason on both sides. It was a delicate matter to touch, and the senate had always opposed its passage as calculated to create confusion and strife. Tiberius Gracchus undertook to enforce it at any cost. The senate resolved to resist it at any cost. Tiberius, with three hundred of his partisans, was slain (133).

2. Caius Gracchus, who was nine years younger than his brother, had so far nothing to do with these disturbances. He remained quiet for years, nursing his revenge. Seeing

What became of the people? 1. Who were the Gracchi? What was the Agrarian law? Why did the senate oppose this law? What part did Tiberius Gracchus take? What became of him?

his opportunity, he rose up as the advocate of the people's rights. The senate resolved to kill him, and the consul Opimius marched against him and routed his attendants. Caius, seeing himself abandoned, ordered his slave to kill him. The slave obeyed and then slew himself (121). With the Gracchi perished for the time being the civil strife.

3. Jugurtha (113-112).—While Rome was rent by these dissensions trouble arose in Numidia. Masinissa had divided his kingdom among his two sons and Jugurtha, his nephew. Micipsa governed in chief; but Jugurtha wished to reign alone. He caused the assassination of his cousins, and was summoned to Rome to give an account of his conduct. Knowing the corruption there, he set out for the city. Bribing a tribune of the people, the tribune forbade him to speak when asked to answer the charges brought against him. Notwithstanding the anger of the people, the tribune's word was law, and the assembly dissolved without coming to a decision. While in Rome Jugurtha procured the assassination of Masinissa's grandson. He was thereupon expelled from Italy and war was declared against him.

4. Some of the Roman generals sent against him Jugurtha bribed; others he beat. At last Metellus, a trained general and an incorruptible man, was sent to Africa. Metellus was on the point of completing his conquest when Marius, one of his lieutenants, stepped in (108). Marius, appointed consul, superseded Metellus in the command.

5. Jugurtha had fought bravely and with skill, but he could not prevail against Rome. He was deserted by Bocchus, King of Mauritania, his ally. Bocchus was urged to deliver Jugurtha, and, after long hesitation, did so, and

2. What was the fate of Caius Gracchus? 3. Who was Jugurtha? Describe his course of action. 4. What generals were sent against Jugurtha? 5. By whom was Jugurtha betrayed?

sent him loaded with chains to Sulla, the quæstor of Marius. Sulla claimed the triumph, which led to a rivalry between him and Marius disastrous in its after-effects. Jugurtha with his two sons was taken to Rome to grace the conqueror's triumph, and cast into a dungeon, where he perished.

6. Teutones and Cimbri.—Rome was always a tempting prize to the fierce barbaric tribes bordering on its northern domains. Two powerful northern peoples, the Teutones and Cimbri, united their forces and marched towards the Alps while Rome was rejoicing over the fall of Jugurtha. She sent a powerful force to meet them under the command of incompetent generals. A battle was fought near the Rhone, in which eighty thousand Romans were left on the field, while the conquerors, instead of marching on Rome, proceeded to ravage the south of Gaul.

7. Marius Consul.—Marius, being regarded as the only general who could save his country, was, for the first time in the history of the republic, appointed consul for several years in succession. In his fourth consulate the Teutones appeared on the Italian frontier. Notwithstanding their vast numbers, he beat them near Aix (102). The Cimbri had crossed the Alps, beaten the Romans opposed to them, and advanced to Vercellæ, on the banks of the Po. Marius hastened to meet them, and the Cimbri were almost destroyed (101). For these exploits Marius was honored with the title of third founder of Rome.

8. His authority was now supreme. He was an able general, but no statesman. He governed badly. The Italians desired the name and rights of Roman citizens. They were denied it, and in the "social war" that ensued they compelled Rome to grant them their demand.

How did the rivalry between Sulla and Marius originate? 6. By whom was Italy now invaded? 7. Describe the campaigns of Marius against the invaders. 8. What occasioned the "social war"?

The Samnites were now the only enemies of Rome left in Italy.

SECTION II. Wars against Mithridates (88-63 B.C.); Sulla; Spartacus; Catiline.

9. Mithridates in Asia Minor.—While Rome was torn by its internal troubles it was threatened without by Mithridates, King of Pontus, who overran Asia Minor. He massacred one hundred thousand Romans and Italians settled there. Sulla, then consul, was sent against him, but Marius had Sulla deprived of his command. Sulla returned to Rome at the head of an army and expelled Marius and his partisans. Marius escaped to Africa, but on the departure of Sulla for Greece he returned to Rome.

10. Victories of Sulla.—Greece was invaded by Archelaus, the chief general of Mithridates. Sulla took Athens by storm, and at Chæronea cut the army of Archelaus in pieces. Soon after his own bravery turned what threatened to be a great disaster into a great victory at Orchomenus (86). Mithridates, terrified, ordered Archelaus to make peace. By the terms of the peace Mithridates surrendered his conquests, his navy, a great part of his treasures, and was confined to the limits of his former kingdom of Pontus. This is known as the treaty of Dardanum (84).

11. While Sulla was winning these victories Rome was at the cruel mercy of Marius. Sulla's friends were massacred, as were many other citizens. Marius caused himself to be elected consul a seventh time. Sulla's successes so tormented him that he took to drinking and soon died of fever.

12. Sulla Master of Rome (82).—On his return to Italy

9. Who was Mithridates? What troubles arose in Rome at this time? 10. How and by whom was Mithridates overcome? What was the treaty of Dardanum? 11. What passed in Rome meanwhile?

Sulla found opposed to him fifteen generals and an army of over two hundred thousand men. His own veteran force numbered only forty thousand; but men flocked to his standard, and Pompey and Crassus, then rising in public life, were on his side. The party of Marius was beaten everywhere, but a battle with the Samnites nearly proved fatal to Sulla and to Rome. Under their experienced general, Telesinus, they evaded Sulla and Pompey, and by night reached the defenceless capital. Sulla followed after and at once attacked. The combat was most obstinate, and at first declared for the Samnites. But the tide was turned when Telesinus fell mortally wounded. Sulla's orders were that no quarter be given, and few Samnites escaped.

13. Sulla entered Rome, and his first act was to put to death six thousand soldiers of the Marian party, who had surrendered under promise of life. Made dictator, he dealt out death on all sides; his word being law, ninety senators, over two thousand knights, and a vast number of citizens fell under his vengeance in Rome and throughout Italy. Then he softened and revived the laws. He weakened the power of the tribunes, which had often been abused, restored the chief authority to the senate and patrician order, and distributed the lands of his enemies among his own officers and soldiers. He had thus more than one hundred and twenty thousand warriors who owed their fortunes to him.

14. For nearly three years he maintained this power, and then voluntarily resigned it. Retiring into private life, he gave himself up to debauchery and licentiousness. He died, at the age of sixty, in the year following his abdication (78).

12. Describe Sulla's return to Rome. What of the Samnites? 13. How did Sulla use his power? 14. How long did Sulla remain in power? Describe his closing years.

15. Mithridates again invades Asia Minor.—Rome being occupied with a war in Spain against Sertorius, the last of the Marian generals, and in Italy with a revolt of the gladiators under Spartacus, Mithridates again invaded the Roman provinces of Asia Minor and laid siege to Cyzicus, a city of importance.

16. Spartacus.—Spartacus was a Thracian of great strength, courage, and military capacity. Himself a gladiator, he formed a conspiracy among his brethren of the arena. "If we must fight why not fight our oppressors?" he asked. The revolt succeeded, and numbers of slaves, to whom he promised liberty and riches, flocked to his standard. He defeated several Roman armies, when dissensions broke out in his camp and compelled him to give battle in a bad position on the Silarus. There he was defeated and slain (71).

17. Sertorius.—Sertorius, a partisan of Marius, having fled to Spain, was aided by the Lusitanians. He defeated the generals sent against him, and set up a government on the model of the Roman Republic. Unable to conquer him, the Roman generals set a price on his head, and he was assassinated by Perpenna, one of his lieutenants (73).

18. Lucullus and Mithridates.—Lucullus was sent against Mithridates, whose army he destroyed in passing the Granicus (74). Mithridates, closely pursued, escaped to Pontus. Stripped of his states, he sought refuge with Tigranes, his son-in-law, King of Armenia (70). Lucullus entered Armenia with an army of fifteen thousand men. He was met at Tigranocerta by Tigranes at the head of three hundred thousand Armenians. The unwieldy force gave way at the first onset of the Romans, leaving fifty thou-

15. What opportunity did Mithridates seize? 16. Describe the revolt under Spartacus. 17. Who was Sertorius, and what befell him? 18. Describe Lucullus' campaign in the East.

sand dead on the field, the Roman loss being trifling. Tigranocerta with its immense treasures fell into the hands of the conquerors, and the neighboring countries submitted (69).

19. Tigranes called Mithridates to the command. The latter shunned general engagements and harassed the Romans on the march. Lucullus marched on Artaxata, where Tigranes' treasures lay. To defend these the two monarchs agreed to risk an engagement. The result was their complete defeat, followed by the conquest of all Armenia (68). Too much good fortune wrought insubordination in the Roman ranks. They refused to obey Lucullus. He returned to Rome, leaving the command to less experienced generals. Mithridates and Tigranes, rallying, soon drove the Romans from their states (67).

20. Pompey.—Pompey had been rising into prominence. He brought the war in Spain against Sertorius to a successful close. He defeated Spartacus. He was now given "the proconsulship of the seas," in order to rid Rome of a dangerous nest of pirates—refugees from the army of Mithridates—who had seized on the city of Ostia and were committing great depredations. In three months he had destroyed them and brought to a close the "war of the pirates" (67).

21. He was next sent against Mithridates, and in a single brief campaign brought the war to a close (65). Deserted by all, and a price being set on his head by Tigranes, Mithridates resolved on carrying the war into Italy. But his soldiers refused to follow, set up his son, Pharnaces, in his place, and the old king in despair caused one of his Gallic mercenaries to put an end to his life (63).

19. How was Armenia conquered? What was the result of Lucullus' departure? 20. Mention the exploits of Pompey. 21. What was the end of Mithridates?

22. Pompey meanwhile had subjugated the kingdoms of Syria, Phœnicia, and Judea, and reduced all the country beyond the Euphrates to a Roman province. Pharnaces and Tigranes became tributaries of the republic. He returned to Rome in triumph, and was crowned with the title of "Great."

23. Catiline's Conspiracy (63).—During Pompey's Eastern campaign conspiracy had been rife in Rome. It was set on foot by Sergius Catiline, a senator, whose ambition was as great as his profligacy and daring. His plan was to massacre the senate, fire the city, and overthrow the republic. He gathered around him all the evil elements of the Roman nobility and populace. To carry out his plan he aspired to the chief magistracy. But news of the conspiracy got abroad and the suffrages of the alarmed citizens fell to Cicero, the great orator, author, and advocate, a man of universal renown. An attempt on the part of Catiline to assassinate Cicero failed. Rome was put in a state of siege.

24. Cicero Consul (63).—When the senate met Catiline appeared with calm front in his usual place. Then Cicero rose and, in a speech of unsurpassed vehemence and power, unmasked the traitor and exposed his schemes. Catiline fled the city on the following night and joined the troops he had collected in Etruria. The conspirators he left behind him to execute his plans were arrested and the ringleaders put to death. Instead of marching on Rome, as he had intended, Catiline made for the Alps. The Roman legions pursued him and compelled him to fight. He and all his men fell together. To Cicero was accorded the title of "Father of his Country" (B.C. 62).

22. Describe Pompey's conquests. What title was bestowed on him? 23. What was Catiline's conspiracy? In whom did the Romans confide? 24. What was Cicero's action? What Catiline's?

SECTION III. The First Triumvirate (60 B.C.); Cæsar and Pompey (48 B.C.); Antony and Octavius.

25. The first Triumvirate.—This dangerous conspiracy ended, a new and more dangerous one arose in the person of Caius Julius Cæsar, a Roman noble, possessed of every natural and acquired gift that fits a man to lead. He was as illustrious in letters as in war, and as graceful in society as he was at home in the camp. With Pompey and Crassus, the chief commanders in Rome, he formed a league called the “First Triumvirate,” and got himself appointed consul. He won over the people by passing an agrarian law (59).

26. Conquest of Gaul.—He was next nominated proconsul of Gaul, where fighting was to be done. In his own *Commentaries* he admirably describes the conquest of Gaul and his other conquests over the Germans, Helvetians, and Britons. The result of an eight years’ struggle against the most warlike tribes in Europe was to convert Aquitania and Celtic and Belgic Gaul into provinces of Rome. To it was given the name of Transalpine Gaul, or Gaul beyond the Alps, to distinguish it from Cisalpine Gaul (60-51).

27. Crassus and the Parthians.—Crassus, desiring, like Pompey and Cæsar, to shine also as a great commander, assumed the government of Syria. His design was to subdue the Parthians and extend his conquests to the Indus. He pillaged the Temple at Jerusalem, and from that day evil fortune seemed to follow him. He kept along the line of the Euphrates, followed by a fleet laden with provisions. He was lured into Mesopotamia, and in a few days found himself in a desert without water or provisions. Near Carræ he was met by clouds of

25. Who formed the first Triumvirate, and who was its leading member? What were the characteristics of Cæsar? 26. Describe Cæsar’s campaigns. 27. Describe the campaign of Crassus.

Parthians, defeated, and compelled to retreat. He was lured again into a marshy country, where the enemy overtook him. Surena, the Parthian general, under pretence of a conference, seized his person. His escort attempting to defend him, both they and their general were slain (53).

28. Rivalry of Cæsar and Pompey.—The death of Crassus left Cæsar and Pompey rivals. There was great corruption in the administration at Rome, and licentiousness prevailed. Pompey encouraged this with a view to having himself appointed dictator. He was named sole consul—a distinction without precedent.

29. Cæsar, then in Gaul, demanded the privilege of being a candidate for the following year. It was granted, but Pompey nullified the grant. Cæsar resolved on returning. He crossed the Alps at the head of his legions. At the banks of the Rubicon, which formed the limit of his province, he hesitated, foreseeing the result of the step he was about to take. But he pushed on, seized Rimini, traversed Italy with extraordinary speed, and before Pompey was prepared to meet him he found himself besieged in Brundisium. Pompey escaped by sea to Dyrrachium. Cæsar, having no ships to pursue him, returned to Rome, which he entered as a conqueror. His moderation and gentleness at once won for him a multitude of partisans (49).

30. Battle of Pharsalia (48).—Pompey assembled a powerful army in Greece. Cæsar, having subjugated Spain and Italy, went to meet his rival and gave him battle in the plains of Pharsalia, in Thessaly. Cæsar's superior generalship carried the day. Pompey fled and escaped to Egypt, whose king, Ptolemy, he had befriended; but as soon as

28. Who now became rivals? What was Pompey's policy? 29. Why did Cæsar return to Rome? How did Pompey act? 30. Describe the battle of Pharsalia. What befell Pompey?

he reached the shore he was treacherously murdered by Ptolemy's order (48).

31. Cæsar in the East (48-46).—Cæsar set out in pursuit of Pompey. At Alexandria he learned with horror of his murder. He was called in to settle the differences between Ptolemy and Cleopatra. To the latter he awarded the crown. Ptolemy, enraged, attacked him in the palace at Alexandria, where he lay intrenched with only a few thousand men. He sustained the defence until the arrival of reinforcements, when he attacked the Egyptians, routed the army, and Ptolemy was drowned in the Nile.

32. Cæsar then passed over into Asia to attack Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates. His march was so rapid that he described it in the celebrated words, "*Veni, vidi, vici*"—I came, I saw, I conquered (46). Restoring peace, he returned to Rome in triumph, and was appointed dictator for ten years.

33. Cæsar in Africa and Spain.—He was soon called over into Africa, whither Labienus, his former lieutenant, and others of Pompey's partisans had fled. Among them was Cato of Utica, the great-grandson of the elder Cato, a man of stern integrity of life. Cæsar defeated them at Thapsus. Utica alone held out, but succumbed at last, and, rather than fall into the hands of the conqueror, Cato died by his own hand (46).

34. Pompey's two sons had raised an army in Spain. Cæsar hastened thither, and after a bloody struggle gained a decisive victory near Munda (45), which Cæsar's own bravery and skill alone prevented from becoming a total defeat to his legions. Labienus and one of Pompey's sons were slain.

31. Between whom did Cæsar arbitrate in Egypt? What did Ptolemy do? The result? 32. What did Cæsar do in Asia? 33. Whom next did Cæsar subdue? 34. What took place at Munda?

35. Triumph and Death of Cæsar (44).—The battle of Munda brought peace at last, and Cæsar returned to Rome. He was made perpetual dictator, and the titles of “Imperator” and “Father of his Country” were bestowed on him. The adulation of him grew so great that religious ceremonies and sacrifices were decreed him and his statues were placed in the temples.

36. Meanwhile conspiracy was at work. His desire to be proclaimed king added fuel to the flame. Caius Cassius was the ostensible leader in the conspiracy, but the soul of it was Brutus, an enthusiast, whom Cæsar had much befriended. Cæsar, rejecting all warnings, even on the day fixed for his assassination, entered the senate as usual. At the given signal the conspirators flung themselves upon him, and, pierced by twenty-three wounds, he fell at the foot of Pompey’s statue (44).

37. Second Triumvirate (43).—Octavius, Cæsar’s grand-nephew and adopted son, was in Greece at the time. He was still a youth, but an able politician and cool leader. He returned to Rome and presented himself as Cæsar’s heir. Cæsar’s immense fortune fell to him, and he used his money with effect. Mark Antony, Cæsar’s lieutenant and master of the cavalry, was made consul. He associated himself with Octavius and Lepidus, the latter a man of great wealth but without ability. This constituted the second triumvirate.

38. The Proscriptions.—The new triumvirs distributed among themselves all the provinces of the republic. They then drew up lists of proscriptions wherein were named their friends, benefactors, kinsmen, and brethren. Cicero, who had opposed Antony, was sacrificed. He calmly gave himself up to his murderers (43).

35. How was Cæsar honored? 36. What conspiracy was formed against Cæsar? The result? 37. Who formed the second triumvirate? 38. What was the action of the triumvirate?

39. Battle of Philippi.—Terrorism reigned in Rome. The triumvirs then passed into Macedonia in pursuit of Brutus and Cassius, who had twenty legions under their command. Brutus attacked Octavius with such impetuosity that he drove him back and took his camp. Meanwhile Antony attacked Cassius and beat him as Brutus had Octavius. Cassius, thinking all was lost, slew himself in despair. Brutus was soon after beaten at Philippi, and ended his life by suicide (42).

40. Partition of the Roman World.—Octavius and Antony now divided the Roman provinces between them, leaving nothing to Lepidus. Octavius held the West and the East was given to Antony. Here he fell a victim to the wiles of Cleopatra, and dallied with her while Octavius was strengthening his power in Italy.

41. War between Octavius and Antony (32).—Octavius employed Antony's army in Sicily to defeat Sextus, son of the great Pompey, who after Cæsar's death menaced the coast of Italy with a large fleet. Part of Antony's forces had previously been wasted on a disastrous expedition against the Parthians. Ventidius, his lieutenant, repaired Antony's losses here and gained greater advantages over this enemy than had ever yet been gained by a Roman general (39). Antony being now weakened by his losses in war and degraded by his voluptuous life, Octavius caused the senate to strip him of his titles, and set sail at the head of an immense fleet to carry out the sentence. This roused Antony for the moment, and, collecting all his forces, he went to meet his rival.

42. Battle of Actium (31); Death of Antony.—The fleets met near the promontory of Actium. The victory was a long time in suspense, when Cleopatra withdrew from the

39. Describe the battle of Philippi. 40. How was the Roman world divided? Under whose influence did Antony fall? 41. Describe the rivalry between Antony and Octavius and its consequences.

action with all her vessels. Antony abandoned everything to follow her. His fleet surrendered. Octavius appeared before Pelusium, the key of Egypt. Cleopatra, fearing Antony's anger, sent word that she had killed herself. Thereupon he threw himself on his sword and inflicted a mortal wound. He was carried to her presence and there expired. Cleopatra strove to practise the same arts on Octavius that she had on Antony. Failing in this, and discovering that she was to be sent to Rome to grace the conqueror's triumph, she put an end to her life (see p. 82).

43. Octavius Emperor; End of the Republic (29).—Egypt was reduced to a Roman province. Octavius, confirming Herod as king of Judea, returned to Rome and made a triumphal entry. He closed the temple of Janus, giving peace to the world. He was endowed with the titles of "Father of his Country," "Prince of Peace," "Pacifier of the World," and finally "Emperor," or commander-in-chief of all the Roman armies. This title, set before his name, and not after it, as had been the custom, served thenceforth to designate the sole master of the Roman world, and the Republic, though not officially abolished, yielded to the *Empire*.

CHAPTER IV.

INSTITUTIONS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS OF THE ROMANS.

1. Orders of State.—Under the Roman Republic the sovereignty belonged to the three orders of state, the patricians, knights, and plebeians. The comitia, or na-

42. Describe the battle of Actium. How did Antony die? 43. To what was Egypt reduced? What of Judea? How was Octavius honored? By what was the Republic now followed?

tional assemblies, were held at first in the Forum, but as the republic expanded they were moved to the Field of Mars, near the Tiber. The nation reserved to itself in the comitia the right of making laws, of declaring war or peace, of judging the most important cases, and of appointing the magistrates of the republic.

2. Government.—The government was confided to the senate and to a large number of magistracies. Of the magistracies the priesthood alone was perpetual. The magistracies were invested with power of life and death, but the magistrates were themselves responsible at the expiration of their office.

3. The Roman Army.—In time of war every citizen was a soldier. No man, save in the last days of the republic, could attain office unless he had served ten years in the army. Service began at seventeen and ended at forty-seven. The army was divided into legions, whose numbers varied in time from twelve hundred to six thousand infantry and three hundred cavalry. Each legion had a number and a distinguishing name. Six military tribunes in turn commanded a legion, and under the tribunes were the centurions. Each Roman camp was converted into a practical fortress. Hence many of these camps formed the foundations of cities. In time of peace the soldiers were occupied in clearing untilled lands, erecting fortresses, digging canals, building cities, and constructing the famous highways that stretched from Rome to the extremities of the empire.

4. Roman Colonization.—To conquered countries the Romans sent plebeians and veteran soldiers to plant a colony. To these was given in fee-simple a certain portion of the territory. They formed a garrison of great use to the

1. With whom did the sovereignty rest under the republic? 2. Who governed? What was the power of the magistracy? 3. Describe the Roman army. What of the camps?

home government. Under the empire quite a number of military colonies were founded at various advantageous stations. To certain cities outside the Roman limits was granted the right of municipality. This made the inhabitants Roman citizens, though not with all the privileges of Romans. Their persons were inviolable, nor could they be reduced to slavery nor beaten with rods. In this way St. Paul used his privilege against his enemies.

5. The Roman Family.—The Roman father had absolute control over the members of his family. If a deformed child were born to him he could kill it. He could punish his children as he pleased, or sell them three times. After that they were *emancipated*, or free of his authority. For certain acts he could condemn his wife to death. He had the sole right of property.

6. Slaves were few at the beginning, but with riches, conquests, and power multiplied enormously. In the latter days of the republic they formed more than half of the population of Rome. Some rich families had from ten to twenty thousand slaves. They had no rights outside of their master's will. They were simply chattels.

7. Roman Law and Religion.—In the beginning the Romans, being few, had few and simple laws. These were in some cases severe and capricious. As time went on and the republic developed they were altered and multiplied. The *Roman law* was only drawn up in the reign of the Emperor Theodosius the Younger and Justinian.

8. The Roman religion, simple at the beginning, caught much of its corruption from the Greeks. A multitude of divinities was introduced, the principal being Jupiter. Animals and sometimes human beings were offered in

4. How did the Romans plant their colonies? 5. Describe the Roman family.
6. What of the slaves? 7. What of Roman law? 8. What of religion? Who
was the chief Roman divinity?

sacrifice. The augurs were always consulted, even in families, on occasions of importance. They were simply fortune-tellers endowed with a priestly rank. Vestal virgins, or priestesses of Vesta, were employed to keep alive the fire, called sacred, that burned on the altar of that goddess. The feast-days became days of general debauchery, the result of a corrupt religion.

9. Public Games and Shows.—The Romans, like the Greeks, had a passion for public games. These began to assume their enormous dimensions after the second Punic war. They consisted of wrestling, horse and foot and chariot racing, boxing of various kinds, naval combats, and combats of wild beasts. They were very cruel and brutal for the most part. To them were added the gladiatorial combats of man with man, which, at first restricted to malefactors or men condemned to death, later on became a hideous profession.

10. Perhaps nothing more tended to destroy the native Roman virtue than demoralizing shows of this kind; and the dangerous revolt of the gladiators under Spartacus shows to what an extent it was carried. They were popular up to the reign of Honorius, when Telemachus, a Christian hermit, threw himself between two gladiators and was struck dead by one of them. This heroic sacrifice led to the abolition of the brutal spectacles. The theatrical performances of the Romans were in the main obscene and never reached the height of the Greek drama.

What was the office of the augurs? What of the vestal virgins? What of the Roman feast days? 9. Describe the public games. 10. How and under whom were the gladiatorial shows abolished? What of the Roman theatre?

THE EMPIRE,

PAGAN AND CHRISTIAN (29 B.C.—476 A.D.)

THE history of the Roman Empire is divided into three great periods: in the first (29 B.C.—284 A.D.), called the Principate, the emperor governed with the support of the army and the senate; in the second (284—395 A.D.) the Empire became monarchical and Christian; in the third (395—476 A.D.) the Empire was divided into the Western or Roman Empire and the Eastern or Empire of Constantinople.

CHAPTER I.

THE PRINCIPATE (29 B.C.—284 A.D.)

SECTION I. The Family of Augustus (29 B.C.—68 A.D.); Birth of Christianity; First Persecution, under Nero.

1. Assumption of Power by Octavius.—Octavius was named Augustus by the senate—a title hitherto only given to the gods. He soon acquired sovereign power by uniting in his own person all the ancient magisterial offices of the republic. He was named “Prince of the Senate” and was able to direct this assembly at his own will. He kept up the semblance of republican institutions, but was in reality an autocrat.

2. Augustus Cæsar.—Once actually master of Rome, he made a peaceful and wise ruler, and strove to heal the wounds which he and others had inflicted on his country. The people soon became reconciled to his rule and forgot in their prosperity the loss of the liberty which had cost them so dear. Augustus lived simply and with few or none of the marks of personal sovereignty.

Give the periods of the Roman Empire. How was the Empire finally divided?

1. What title was bestowed upon Octavius? How did he acquire supreme power?
2. What was the character of Augustus' rule? What were his habits of life?

3. Conspiracies.—His reign was not wholly tranquil. It was embittered by the bad conduct of his children and disturbed by conspiracies. The most formidable of these was that under Cinna, the grandson of Pompey. Augustus had heaped favors upon Cinna, but nevertheless the latter sought his benefactor's life. Apprised of the plot, the emperor called Cinna aside, recounted all he had done for him, and then laid bare to him the full details of the conspiracy. His clemency won Cinna over, and from that day out no conspiracy was formed against the person of Augustus.

4. Defeat of Varus (A.D. 9).—Augustus, by means of his generals, vastly extended the Roman Empire. But his arms met with a great reverse in Germany, where Varus was in command. Advancing too far into a newly conquered country, Varus and his legions became entangled in the forest of Teutberg. Here the Germans fell upon and destroyed the Roman army. This disaster darkened the last years of Augustus' reign.

5. The Roman Empire under Augustus.—To the Roman provinces were added Egypt and all the country between the Alps and the Danube. The Asturians and Cantabrians were subdued in Spain; the Germans were driven over the Rhine; and the Parthians were compelled to give up the eagles taken from Crassus. The boundaries of the empire of Augustus were, on the west, the ocean from Mauritania to the mouth of the Rhine; on the north, the Rhine, the Danube, and the Euxine Sea; on the east, Armenia, the Euphrates, and the deserts of Arabia; on the south, the cataracts of Syene, the Libyan deserts, and the chain of the Atlas.

6. This vast territory was split up into thirty provinces

3. Was the reign of Augustus peaceful? Describe the conspiracy of Cinna.
4. What befell Varus and his legions? 5. Describe the conquests of Augustus in the East; in Spain; in Germany. Give the boundaries of the empire.

outside of Italy, nineteen of them being imperial and eleven senatorial. The senate named annual præconsuls to govern the senatorial provinces. The emperor appointed the governors of the imperial provinces, who were called "lieutenants of Cæsar," "procurators," "presidents," or "prefects." Sixteen thousand men watched over the safety of Rome and the emperor; while a standing army of four hundred thousand guarded the frontiers of the empire. Six fleets stationed at various points swept the seas. Rome itself contained more than four millions of inhabitants, and the empire one hundred and twenty millions.

7. The Augustan Age.—Augustus was a great patron of letters, and his name has been given to the most brilliant Latin literary era. Cicero had just gone, as had also the historians Sallust and Cornelius Nepos. But Livy came, and with him the poets Virgil, Horace, Ovid, all favored by the friendship of the emperor. The geographer Strabo belonged to his reign, the architect Vitruvius, and the learned Varro. Indeed, in literary excellence, save in the drama and in oratory, the age of Augustus fell little behind the palmiest days of Greece.

8. Birth of Jesus Christ.—At a time when the power of the world was thus unified in the empire of Rome and in the person of its emperor, the long-promised Redeemer of man was born. Augustus ordered a general census of his empire. All the inhabitants of the provinces were commanded to inscribe their names in the place where their family had its origin. Thus Mary and Joseph, both of whom were descendants of David, had to go to Bethlehem to be enrolled. (And there, as foretold by the prophets, our Lord Jesus Christ was born into the world in

6. How was the empire divided? Who governed the provinces? What army and fleet had Rome? Give the population of the city and empire. 7. Describe the Augustan age. 8. What great event occurred in the reign of Augustus?

the year of Rome 750 and fifteen years before the death of Augustus.

9. Tiberius' (A.D. 14-37).—To Augustus succeeded his stepson, Tiberius. He was little known to the people. He had won the favor of Augustus by a display of virtue and moderation. Once on the throne, he threw off the mask he had worn so long and showed his nature to be bloody, suspicious, and cruel.

10. Germanicus.—Naturally his government came to be hated, and popular affection centred on Germanicus, his nephew, a young man endowed with every noble quality. Tiberius feared him and sent him against the Germans, who had formed a new league against the empire (A.D. 16). Germanicus acted with such wisdom and moderation that he appeased the mutiny of the German legions, who wished to make him emperor. Crossing the Rhine at their head, he ravaged the country until he reached the spot where the legions of Varus had been destroyed. Their bleached bones and relics of the battle were all that was left.

11. The army, moved with indignation and sorrow, marched on in search of the enemy. Arminius, the German leader, used every stratagem to defeat the Romans, but at each encounter he was beaten, and would have been wholly conquered had not Tiberius' jealousy recalled Germanicus. His return was a triumph, which only caused the emperor to hate him the more. He sent him next to the East, and there had him poisoned. All the empire mourned Germanicus. It was now the prey of the cruel Tiberius.

12. Tiberius at Capreæ.—To escape public indignation he retired for several years to the island of Capreæ, where

9. Who succeeded Augustus? What was his character? 10. Who was Germanicus? On what expedition was he sent? 11. Who led the Germans? Why was Germanicus recalled? What befell him?

he gave himself up to debauchery and cruelty. He paid an army of spies, and on their testimony a multitude of innocent persons were condemned and executed. The senate, seeing its most illustrious members fall, was terrified into submission to anything the tyrant decreed.

13. The government was confided to Sejanus, a man as crafty and cruel as the emperor himself. He aspired to the throne, and was making his way to it when a letter from the emperor to the senate exposed him, and he was massacred by the Roman populace. The cruelty of Tiberius increased with his suspicions, and his debaucheries kept pace with both. His health failed and he fell into swoons. In one of these he seemed dead, but, showing signs of recovering consciousness, his attendants smothered him with pillows (A.D. 37).

14. Death of Jesus Christ (A.D. 33).—Meanwhile our Lord had lived His life on earth, preached His doctrine, called His apostles, worked His miracles, and crowned His work by the sacrifice of His life on Calvary. He rose from the dead and ascended visibly from the earth. From Him and from these events was born the Christian Church, which was to change the world and renew the face of the earth.

15. Caligula (A.D. 37-41).—Tiberius was bad, but his successor, Caligula, was even worse. He was the son of Germanicus, and grandson by adoption of Tiberius, and as unworthy of his father as he was natural successor of his grandfather. This wholly vicious creature commanded that divine honors be paid him; and Rome had sunk so low in virtue and honor that he was obeyed. Within two years his frightful extravagance exhausted the treasury of the empire. To fill it he proscribed right and left, and seized upon the property of the wealthiest citizens. In fact,

12. Tell of Tiberius at Capreae. How did he rule Rome? 13. What part did Sejanus play? What befell Sejanus? How did Tiberius die? 14. What great event occurred in A.D. 33? 15. Who succeeded Tiberius? Describe Caligula.

he used Rome as a vicious child uses its toys. He had a palace built for his horse and appointed the animal consul. He was slain by conspirators in the fourth year of a reign of horrible excess. He was probably partially insane.

16. Claudius (A.D. 41-54).—The prætorian guards, who slew Caligula, searching the palace, found Claudius, brother of Germanicus and uncle of Caligula, hiding away for fear. He was about fifty years of age, and had lived in retirement hitherto. Him they chose as successor to Caligula. He became a mere instrument in the hands of his wife and her favorites. His wife, Messalina, an infamous woman, was put to death. He chose another wife in Agrippina, daughter of Germanicus. Influenced by her, he adopted as heir Nero, her son by a former marriage. When Claudius seemed disposed to restore his own son, Britannicus, to the succession, Agrippina caused him to be poisoned.

17. Nero (A.D. 54-68).—Nero was only seventeen when he succeeded Claudius. His accession was well liked by the people. Burrhus, commander of the guards, and Seneca the philosopher had been his tutors. He soon cut loose from their guidance and gave himself up wholly to cruelty and every kind of vice. He began by poisoning at his own table Britannicus, his adopted brother. He caused his mother to be stabbed. He murdered his first wife and his second. Even his tutor, Seneca, was not spared. He and the poet Lucan were condemned as conspirators, and Rome began to reek with the blood of its most illustrious citizens.

18. He caused the city to be set on fire (A.D. 64), and two-thirds of it was destroyed. He laid the blame on the Christians, then a new and mysterious sect in Rome. An

16. Who succeeded Caligula? Whom did Claudius marry and adopt? What befell Claudius? 17. How did Nero begin his reign? What illustrious persons did he condemn? 18. Whom did Nero accuse of burning Rome?

edict of general persecution was issued against them. SS. Peter and Paul, who had planted the Church in Rome, as in other cities, were among the first victims of this persecution. Other Christian martyrs were tortured with fiendish cruelty and in sight of the emperor and populace.

19. Corbulo and the Parthians.—The Parthians invading Armenia, Corbulo, the ablest general of the time, was sent against them. On arriving in Syria he found an undisciplined and disorganized force. He restored order and soon became master of Armenia. Artaxata, the capital, was taken and burned. Tigranocerta, another important city, surrendered. The Parthians sued for peace, which was granted, and Armenia was restored to a Parthian prince on condition of his paying homage to the emperor.

20. Death of Nero (A.D. 68).—Meanwhile Nero was seeking new depths of degradation. He became a mere buffoon, while retaining all his ferocity. Rome grew weary of him. Galba, the governor of Spain, raised the standard of revolt. Nero concocted new plans of vengeance and blood, but all the empire rose against him. He hid himself in terror, and when the soldiers approached to capture him fell on his own sword. With him ended the Augustan family.

SECTION II. The three Military Usurpers (68-69 A.D.); the three Princes of the Flavian Family (69-96 A.D.); the Catacombs.

21. Galba, Otho, and Vitellius.—The Roman Empire was beginning to break up from its very vastness as well as from its corruption at home. It was now a prey for military adventurers. The Spanish legions, jealous of the Roman prætorian guards, themselves named an emperor in the person of their governor, Galba. He was seventy years of age, but still a man of strong character. Arriving in

Who fell under Nero's persecution? 19. Describe the expedition of Corbulo. The result of the expedition? 20. Describe the close of Nero's reign. 21. How did the disruption of the Roman Empire begin? Who was Galba?

Rome, he refused the guards there the customary gratuity which they demanded. But he soon gave way to avarice and favoritism. He was slain in a revolt of the prætorian guards instigated by Otho, a former lieutenant of his. Otho was proclaimed emperor. His title was disputed by Vitellius, whom the German legions proclaimed. Otho, beaten at Bedriacum, took his own life, and Vitellius succeeded, only to give the Romans an example of shameful gluttony. The legions of the East proclaimed a new emperor—Vespasian.

22. Vespasian (A.D. 69).—Nero had sent Vespasian to quell the Jewish revolt. He subdued the whole of Palestine, with the exception of Jerusalem. Proclaimed emperor by his legions, he resolved on starving Rome into submission, and stopped the supply of corn from Egypt, on which the great city largely depended. Antonius Primus, one of his generals, crossed the Alps at the head of the Illyrian legions, defeated the army sent against him by Vitellius, took the camp in front of Cremona, captured the city, and reduced it to ashes. This he did in a day and a night, and, marching on Rome, entered it. Vitellius was slain by the populace.

23. Vespasian's Reforms.—Titus Flavius Vespasian was head of the great Flavian family. His reign was peaceful. He set to work to reform abuses on all sides, in the senate as in the city. He set the much-needed example of a life of extreme simplicity and moderation. His chief vice was avarice. With this exception his ten years of reign were most beneficial to Rome and to the empire.

24. Titus.—His son Titus succeeded him. Titus had taken Jerusalem after a terrible siege, and destroyed the Temple. His character may be judged by the title be-

What befell Galba? Tell of Otho and Vitellius. Whom did the Eastern legions proclaim? 22. What of Vespasian and the Jews? How did Vespasian overcome Vitellius? 23. Describe Vespasian's reforms. 24. Who succeeded him?

stowed on him of the "Delight of Mankind." His reign lasted only two years and two months, when he died, it was supposed, of poison at the hands of his brother Domitian.

25. Eruption of Vesuvius (A.D. 79).—The reign of Titus is memorable for a great eruption of Mount Vesuvius, in which Pliny, the famous naturalist, perished, while his celebrated nephew, Pliny the Younger, barely escaped. The city of Herculaneum was completely buried under the burning lava, and was only discovered in 1710 at a depth of sixty feet beneath the village of Portici, near Naples. Houses, streets; furniture, everything, were found much as they had been left at the time of the eruption.

26. Domitian (A.D. 81-96).—Domitian succeeded Titus. He was a cruel and avaricious man. He was afraid to attack the hordes that were hovering and raiding on the frontiers of the empire; but he gave himself lofty titles such as were bestowed on the great Roman conquerors of old. Julius Agricola, one of his lieutenants, conquered Britain (A.D. 86), but was recalled through the jealousy of the emperor and condemned to live the rest of his days in obscurity. His campaign and character, however, survived in the brilliant pages of his son-in-law, Tacitus, the great historian, as did also the character of Domitian.

27. Second Persecution of the Christians (A.D. 93-96).—Domitian's native cruelty found vent on the Christians, who were constantly multiplying. He published an edict against them and set on foot a bloody persecution. St. John the Evangelist was one of the victims. Escaping death miraculously, he was banished to the island of Patmos, where he wrote the Apocalypse. Domitian, after a reign of fifteen years, fell a victim to a conspiracy on the

For what was Titus famous? 25. What disaster occurred in the reign of Titus? 26. Who succeeded Titus? What was Domitian's character? What conquest was made by Agricola? 27. Describe Domitian's persecution. What of St. John?

part of his wife and chief officers just as he was planning their massacre.

28. The Catacombs.—The Christians, being the objects of persecution, took refuge in caves beneath the city of Rome, which were called the Catacombs. These, with their windings and chambers, literally constituted a city beneath a city. There they buried the martyrs; there they met in conference and to worship. Nothing more solemn or beautiful is known in history. It was not till the reign of Constantine that the Christian Church merged from this darkness into the light of day, although the work of conversion and of Christian life was constantly carried on in secret, and in spite of all danger, up and down through the great pagan city, even into the palace of the Cæsars.

SECTION III. The Antonines (96-192 A.D.); the Prætorian Emperors (192-193 A.D.)

29. Nerva (A.D. 96-98); Trajan (A.D. 98-117).—To Domitian succeeded Nerva. He was placed on the throne by his colleagues of the senate. He was the first emperor of foreign extraction, his family coming from Crete. He reigned but a few months, but his reign gave great promise of good things. He opened the prisons, where so many lay unjustly condemned, recalled the exiles, and prohibited the persecution of the Christians. He adopted and named Trajan as his successor. Trajan was a man of as great civic virtue as warlike capacity. On his modest entry into Rome and accession he was at once named "Optimus" (the best); and he deserved his title.

30. Trajan's Conquests.—The Dacians had forced a shameful peace from Domitian. Trajan marched against them, bridged the Danube, conquered them, and reduced their

28. What were the Catacombs? For what purposes were they used? 29. Describe the reign of Nerva. Who succeeded Nerva? What was Trajan's character? What title was given him? 30. What of Trajan and the Dacians?

country to a province of Rome (A.D. 102). Thence he passed to Armenia, which the restless Parthians had again seized. Armenia soon was his. Mesopotamia and Assyria followed, and a part of Arabia (A.D. 106). Trajan descended the Persian Gulf to the ocean and visited the ruins of Babylon. When on the point of destroying the Parthian empire he suddenly died (A.D. 117). His virtues, though great, were pagan; nor was he without pagan vices.

31. Third Christian Persecution (A.D. 102-116).—Trajan set in force the third persecution against the Christians. Pliny the Younger, governor of Bithynia, asked how he should deal with the Christians. Pliny testified to their numbers and virtues, but complained that because of them the temples of the gods were deserted. Trajan replied that the Christians were not to be hunted, but if accused the laws should be enforced against them. The laws meant punishment with death for refusing to sacrifice to the pagan gods. St. Ignatius, Bishop of Antioch, was the most illustrious victim of this persecution. By Trajan's own order the martyr was exposed to wild beasts in the Roman amphitheatre, and so perished.

32. Hadrian (A.D. 117-138).—Hadrian, nephew and successor of Trajan, was a man of peace. He let Trajan's conquests go and confined the empire within its former limits. He was a man of extraordinary and cultivated mental qualities. He was jealous, however, of literary superiority, was inconstant in friendship, and his debaucheries were a scandal.

33. Jewish Revolt and Dispersion (A.D. 135).—The Jews had revolted against Trajan, but were subdued. Again they rose against his successor, under Barcochebas, a bri-

Describe Trajan's conquests in the East. 31. How did Trajan treat the Christians? What was Pliny's testimony about the Christians? How did St. Ignatius of Antioch die? 32. What was Hadrian's policy and character?

gand, who called himself the Messias. Six hundred thousand of them perished, and the disaster was supreme. The race was dispersed, and Hadrian built a new Jerusalem, called *Ælia Capitolina*, which included Calvary within its limits. But the Jews were forbidden to enter it.

34. Antoninus Pius (A.D. 138-161).—Antoninus, Hadrian's adopted son, succeeded. He was called "Pius," or filial, because of his love for his parents. He was a good prince, laboring quietly for the welfare of his empire.

35. Marcus Aurelius (A.D. 161-180); Lucius Verus (A.D. 161-169).—Marcus Aurelius, son-in-law of Antoninus, succeeded, and took as colleague Lucius Verus, his adopted brother. Verus gave himself up to vice and soon died. Marcus Aurelius was a man of singular virtue. Doubtless the influence of Christianity was telling secretly on the well-disposed pagans.

36. War with the Parthians (A.D. 162); Fourth Persecution (A.D. 166).—The Parthians had again invaded Armenia under their king, Vologeses. Marcus Aurelius sent Avidius Cassius against him. Vologeses was beaten. Cassius passed the Euphrates, advanced to and burned the cities of Seleucia and Ctesiphon. But the army on their return brought a pestilence into Europe. Multitudes fell victims to it, and the blame was laid on the Christians. The emperor renewed the edicts of persecution, and the martyrdoms recommenced. St. Polycarp, Bishop of Smyrna, was burned alive, and numbers of confessors of the faith suffered death.

37. War with the Germans (A.D. 174).—The German tribes formed a formidable league against their conquerors. In great numbers they forced the passages of the Danube and the Alps, and seized upon Aquileia, in Venetia. Mar-

33. How did Hadrian treat the revolted Jews? 34. Who succeeded Hadrian?
35. Who succeeded Antoninus? What was the character of Aurelius? 36. What
of the Parthians? What caused the new persecution? 37. Tell of the Germans.

cus Aurelius drove them back over the Danube. In the pursuit he found himself and his army surrounded in the mountains of Bohemia by the hostile Quadi and perishing with thirst. Here, as recorded by pagan writers, the prayers and valor of a Christian legion, called the "Thundering," turned defeat into a great victory and had the effect of checking for a time the persecution of the Christians. The war continued to the end of the emperor's reign. He died at Vienna.

38. Commodus (A.D. 180-192).—Commodus succeeded to the throne but not to the virtues of his father. His great strength, in which he gloried, led him to contend in the arena with the gladiators in sight of the Roman people. He was a brutal and cruel creature, devoured by ignoble passions. He died of poison.

39. Pertinax and Didius (A.D. 193).—Pertinax, an able man of common birth, was chosen emperor. His reforms were too trying to the prætorian guards, who, after three months, revolted and slew him. The empire was then put up by them for sale at public auction, and was purchased by Didius Julianus, a wealthy senator. Such an act outraged even degenerate Rome. The armies on the frontier proclaimed three several emperors. One of these, Septimius Severus, commander in Illyria, was first on the march to Rome. Didius was abandoned and condemned to death by the senate.

40. The Christian Apologists.—The second century of the Christian era was now far advanced, and numbers of Christians were found in every province of the Roman Empire. To persecution and death the pagans added all sorts of vile calumnies and lies regarding Christian faith and practice. To these Christians of great knowledge and ability replied

Tell of the "Thundering Legion." 38. Describe the reign of Commodus. 39. What followed on the death of Commodus? How did Didius obtain the throne? What became of Didius? 40. Were the Christians numerous at this time?

in writings that are still guides to the Church. St. Justin Martyr was one of the most illustrious of these apologists. His second epistle, addressed to Marcus Aurelius, won for the holy author the crown of martyrdom. Later on Tertullian wrote his famous apology for Christianity. This in itself was a death-blow to paganism. Origen was another great writer in the same cause.

41. Latin Writers after Augustus.—With Augustus declined the great era of Latin writers. Elegant and forcible writers came after him, but the old grace, beauty, and strength were gone. Phædrus wrote his *Fables*, and Martial his stinging *Epigrams*, and Juvenal his fierce and forcible *Satires*; but still it was the period of decline. There was no Cicero or Livy, no Virgil or Horace. There were a multitude of writers, but they were not great. Tacitus, the historian, alone was worthy to rank among his predecessors.

SECTION IV. The Syrian Princes (193-235 A.D.); Military Anarchy (235-268 A.D.); the Illyrian Princes (268-284 A.D.)

42. Septimius Severus (A.D. 193-211); Fifth Persecution (A.D. 203).—Septimius Severus was of African extraction and the first of the princes called Syrian, because he married a Syrian woman whose accession to the throne had been predicted. After defeating Didius he had to encounter his rivals, Niger in the East and Albinus in the West. Niger he crushed in the defiles of Mount Taurus, and Albinus near Lyons, in Gaul. His treatment of the vanquished was very cruel. He was treacherous and avaricious, and the author of a new persecution of the Christians, in which thousands perished at Lyons alone, among them St. Irenæus, the disciple of St. Polycarp. In other

What of the Apologists? 41. Describe the condition of Latin literature after the Augustan era. Name some of the writers. 42. How did Septimius Severus gain the throne? How did he treat the Christians?

respects the emperor was a man of strong character, frugal, vigilant, brave, and a master of military science. He wrested Mesopotamia from the Parthians. His last expedition was against the Caledonians, in the north of Britain (A.D. 208). To prevent their inroads on the south he raised a wall extending from sea to sea, which was called after his name.

43. Caracalla (A.D. 211-217).—Caracalla, son and successor of Severus, had already attempted to murder his father. One of his first acts on the throne was to strangle Geta, his brother and colleague, in the arms of their mother. He was a monster in human form. Having condemned Macrinus, commander of the guards, to death, Macrinus forestalled his sentence by killing Caracalla and mounting the throne in his stead.

44. Macrinus (A.D. 217-218); Heliogabalus (A.D. 218-222).—Macrinus' brief reign was put an end to by his own soldiers, who slew him and set Heliogabalus on the throne. Heliogabalus was cousin-german to Caracalla and high-priest of the sun in Syria. He was a mixture of effeminacy and ferocity, and the lowest depths of depravity seemed reached in his person. He perished miserably, and was succeeded by Alexander Severus.

45. Alexander Severus (A.D. 222-235).—Again was decaying Rome granted the favor of a good prince. Alexander Severus, though remaining in the old Roman ways, was Christian in his life and love of virtue. In his palace he had a chapel, where he kept the images of Christ, of Abraham, of Orpheus, and of other benefactors of the human race. He had to contend against the Persians in the east and the Germans in the north. The Parthian empire, which had resisted all the efforts of the Romans, fell

Describe the character and conquests of Septimius. 43. Describe the reign of Caracalla. 44. Describe the reigns of Macrinus and Heliogabalus. 45. Who succeeded Heliogabalus? What was the character of Alexander Severus?

under Artaxerxes, a disgraced general, who in revenge dethroned his sovereign and set up the kingdom of Persia (A.D. 226). Thus fell the Parthian empire after lasting five centuries (B.C. 225—A.D. 226). The kingdom founded by Artaxerxes lasted 426 years (A.D. 226-652).

46. Alexander took Mesopotamia from Artaxerxes, but lack of discipline among his troops prevented him pursuing his conquest. On the other hand, he had to repel the Germans, who had invaded Gaul, and while driving them over the Rhine he was assassinated by Maximin, who took the title of emperor.

47. Military Usurpers (A.D. 235-268).—With the murder of Alexander began a long series of usurpations and counter-usurpations which drenched Rome and the empire in blood. In an interval of fifty years there were fifty Cæsars. The soldiers made and unmade emperors at their will, and universal anarchy reigned, while the barbarians encroached upon the borders and gradually menaced Rome.

48. Maximin I. (A.D. 235-238); Sixth Persecution.—Maximin, originally a herdsman, became a soldier, and by his prodigious strength and valor rose rapidly until he seized the throne. He was as brutal as he was strong, set on foot a fierce persecution of the Christians, and finally fell a victim to the same kind of conspiracy that brought him to the throne.

49. Decius (A.D. 249-251); Seventh Persecution.—Among Maximin's immediate successors, who all suffered violent deaths, the two principal were Gordian III. (A.D. 238-244) and Philip the Arab (A.D. 244-249). Gordian III. routed the Persians, while the tribune Aurelian vanquished the Franks near Mayence (A.D. 241). The Franks, whose name now begins to appear in history,

What became of the Parthian Empire? 46. Did Alexander succeed in his wars? How did he die? 47. What followed on his death? 48. Describe Maximin and his reign. 49. What followed on Maximin's death? What of the Franks?

were a combination of German tribes who lived between the Rhine and the Weser. Philip the Arab restored Mesopotamia to the Persians and celebrated the thousandth anniversary of Rome by great public games, which were the last of their kind. Then came Decius, who is chiefly memorable for his relentless persecution of the Christians and for his miserable end. Setting out in pursuit of the Goths, he was treacherously entangled in a marsh, where he perished with his army.

50. Gallus (A.D. 251-253); Æmilian (A.D. 253).—Gallus, lieutenant of Decius, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, and at once concluded a disgraceful treaty with the Goths. He was slain by his soldiers, and his successor, Æmilian, soon suffered the same fate.

51. Valerian I. (A.D. 253-260); Eighth Persecution (A.D. 258).—When Valerian, the third successor of Decius, ascended the throne, Sapor I., King of Persia, invaded the Asian provinces of the empire and took Nisibis and Edessa. Valerian hastened to Edessa, and Sapor, inviting him to a conference, treacherously took him prisoner. He was subjected to every kind of indignity, and, after three years of horrible captivity, was put to death, then flayed, and his skin, dyed red, was hung up in a temple as a sign of disgrace to the Romans.

52. Gallienus (A.D. 260-268) and the Thirty Tyrants.—Gallienus, son of Valerian, gave himself up to a life of indulgence. He made no attempt either to free his father or repel the Persians. A dreadful pestilence, called the “Fifteen Years’ Plague” (A.D. 250-265), desolated Rome and the provinces. Civil war added to the cup of Roman misery. There were so many claimants for the throne that the epoch has been called the “Reign of the

How was the thousandth anniversary of Rome celebrated? For what is Decius remembered? 50. What of Gallus and Æmilian? 51. Who opposed Valerian? What was Valerian’s end? 52. Describe the reign of Gallienus.

Thirty Tyrants." In combating one of these Gallienus perished at the hands of his own soldiers, and Claudius was proclaimed emperor.

53. Claudius II. (A.D. 268-270).—Claudius, called the Illyrian from his place of birth, was a man of firmness and worth. He repelled the barbarians, destroyed an army of three hundred thousand Goths and a fleet of two thousand sail that had invaded Macedonia. Just after this great achievement he died of the plague and left the throne to Aurelian.

54. Aurelian (A.D. 270-275) and Zenobia; Ninth Persecution (A.D. 274).—Aurelian, renowned for his victory over the Franks, began his reign by driving the Vandals, Germans, and other invaders out of Italy. He then turned to the East, where Zenobia, Queen of Palmyra, a woman of great qualities, had seized a part of Asia. Aurelian defeated the warrior-queen in two battles, and she shut herself up in Palmyra. Aurelian invested the city, and, provisions beginning to fail, Zenobia herself left the city to seek help from the Persians (A.D. 273). Aurelian sent a detachment of cavalry in pursuit. They came up with and captured her when about to cross the Euphrates. The captive queen was taken to Rome and granted a beautiful villa at Tibur, where she lived as a Roman lady. Aurelian died soon after. He issued an edict against the Christians.

55. Tacitus (A.D. 275-276).—After Aurelian's death the senate and army yielded to each other the choice of his successor. For six months the friendly and unusual contest was waged, no disturbance occurring in the interval. Finally the senate named Tacitus, a senator of great wisdom. He was an old man, a relative of Tacitus the his-

53. Describe the reign of Claudius the Illyrian. 54. How did Aurelian begin his reign? What befell Zenobia? How did Aurelian treat the Christians? 55. What followed on the death of Aurelian? Who was chosen emperor?

torian. He accepted the dangerous honor with reluctance, and after a few months was slain.

56. Probus (A.D. 276-282).—The army chose Probus, a man of obscure birth but high moral character, bravery, and ability. The barbarians were pressing on the empire on all sides. Probus successfully routed them all. He then set out for the East to check the Persians. The king of Persia, astonished at the suddenness of his appearance on the mountains of Armenia, sent ambassadors to negotiate peace. They found the emperor seated on the grass eating his dinner of pea-soup and salt pork. He gave a brief message of command to the king and invited them to share his meal, if hungry; if not, to go their way at once. Such summary speech convinced the king. He went in person to the camp and concluded peace on the conditions of Probus. The emperor who had restored Rome's glory was soon after slain in a revolt of the soldiers.

57. Carus (A.D. 282-283), Numerian (A.D. 283-284), and Carinus.—Carus, commander of the prætorian guard, who was chosen to succeed, showed himself worthy of his predecessor. Having conquered Mesopotamia, he was advancing on Persia when he was suddenly found dead in his tent on the banks of the Tigris. Aper, his minister, spread the report that the emperor was struck by lightning, and, to prove his fidelity, proclaimed Carinus and Numerian, the sons of Carus.

58. Numerian was soon after assassinated, and the wrathful generals proclaimed one of themselves, Diocletian. Diocletian summoned Aper before the army, and, denouncing him as the assassin of the emperor, plunged his sword into his heart. Carinus was murdered soon after, and Diocle-

56. How did Probus act? Describe his Persian campaign and his death. 57. Who was chosen to succeed? What befell Carus? Who proclaimed his successors? 58. What of Diocletian? What became of Aper and Carus' sons?

tian was possessed of sole power. From the reign of Commodus twenty-two of the twenty-five occupants of the throne had perished by assassination.

CHAPTER II.

THE MONARCHICAL (284-312 A.D.) AND CHRISTIAN EMPIRE (313-395 A.D.)

THE Empire became an absolute monarchy under Diocletian and Constantine. Constantine secured the triumph of Christianity.

SECTION I. Diocletian (284-305 A.D.); Constantine the Great (306-337 A.D.); Edict of Milan (A.D. 313).

1. Diocletian consolidates his Power.—Diocletian, born at Salona, in Dalmatia, was a man of bravery and skill. He had risen from the ranks. On entering Rome he destroyed what was left of the power of the senate, and replaced the turbulent prætorian guards by the Illyrian legions, who were devoted to him. To defend the frontiers he associated with himself Maximian, a soldier of fortune but an able general (A.D. 286).

2. Constantius Chlorus and Galerius.—The two emperors secured the dominion of the empire. They overcame all obstacles, Diocletian being the brain of all the movements. He created two Cæsars, who were lieutenants with right of succession to the emperors (A.D. 292). The first was Constantius Chlorus, a man of great worth and valor, who was father of the great Constantine. The second was Galerius, a peasant's son, and a man whose only law was his sword. Galerius resided at Sirmium, Constantius at Treves,

1. How did Diocletian treat the senate and the prætorian guards? Whom did he choose as associate and why? 2. What further steps did Diocletian take to guard the empire? What is meant by the Tetrarchy? Name the tetrarchs.

Maximian at Milan, and Diocletian at Nicomedia. The government was known as that of the "Tetrarchy."

3. Diocletian was really the supreme head, and proved his title by his brilliant expedition against the Persians. Galerius being worsted at Carrhæ, Diocletian took the field himself and gained a speedy victory. Galerius afterwards wiped out his disgrace by several brilliant successes, when, weary of playing an inferior part, he aspired to supplant Diocletian.

4. **Tenth Persecution (A.D. 303).**—Galerius hated Christians, and constantly urged Diocletian to publish an edict against them. The emperor, who was on the whole a moderate man, refused. Galerius then twice set fire to the palace at Nicomedia, charging the Christians with the deed, and flying, as he said, to avoid being burned by them. Diocletian at last yielded and signed the decree ordering the most bloody persecution that the Church had yet endured (A.D. 303). It was called the "Era of Martyrs."

5. **Diocletian abdicates (A.D. 305).**—The old emperor began to decline in mind and body. Galerius persuaded him to name as new Cæsars Maximin and Severus, creatures of Galerius. He next compelled both Diocletian and Maximian to make a solemn abdication of the throne. The remaining nine years of his life Diocletian passed in retirement at Padua, happy in having resigned the care of the empire for the care of his garden.

6. **Constantine (A.D. 306-337).**—Galerius proved a cruel and avaricious ruler. Jealous of Constantine, son of his colleague, Constantius Chlorus, he tried all he could to keep him near his person in order to destroy him. But the young man escaped to his father, who, dying soon

3. Who was head of the Tetrarchy? What of Diocletian and Galerius?
4. Describe the tenth persecution of the Christians. 5. How did Galerius influence Diocletian? Who abdicated? 6. What of Constantine?

after, left his portion of the empire to his son. To Constantine thus fell Britain, Gaul, and Spain.

7. The rest of the empire was divided between Galerius and his two Cæsars. These oppressed the people by their exactions. Maxentius, son of Maximian, made himself master of Italy. Killing Severus, he chose his own father as his colleague; and Galerius, feeling the strength of his new rival, named his friend Licinius to succeed Severus.

8. **Anarchy; Triumph of Constantine.**—There were thus six hostile emperors in the field. Maximian tried to murder his son, Maxentius, and his son-in-law, Constantine. He at last committed suicide (A.D. 310). Constantine alone endeared himself to the hearts of the people. Galerius was attacked with a frightful disease and perished miserably at Sardica (A.D. 311). Constantine was called to Rome by the voice of the people. He marched into Italy.

9. At this time he was hesitating whether or not to embrace Christianity. Moved by grace and by miraculous signs, he adopted the standard of Christ's cross as the standard of the Roman armies. Meeting Maxentius near the gates of Rome, he beat him back to the Melvian bridge on the Tiber. The bridge gave way under the number of fugitives, and Maxentius, with many of his troops, was drowned. Constantine entered Rome in triumph and amid universal acclamation (A.D. 312).

10. Maximin attempted to murder Licinius, but he was defeated and besieged in Tarsus. Fearful of falling into the hands of the enemy, he took poison and died in horrible agony (A.D. 313). Licinius alone remained to oppose Constantine. Like the others, he had been a bitter persecutor of the Christians. He marched against Constantine with an army composed entirely of pagans. They met

7. How and among whom was the empire now divided? 8. Describe the anarchy that ensued. 9. What moved Constantine to Christianity? How did he enter Rome? 10. What befell Maximin? Describe Constantine's final victory.

near Adrianople; Licinius offering victims to the gods before the battle, and Constantine preparing for it by prayer. Constantine's victory was complete. Licinius surrendered his provinces on condition of his life being spared; but being detected in an after-intrigue for the renewal of the war, he was put to death (A.D. 324).

11. Triumph of Christianity.—Constantine, now sole master of the empire, strove to heal its wounds. In the year A.D. 313 he published the famous Edict of Milan, which put an end to persecution and granted the free exercise of the Christian religion. Idolatry rapidly disappeared before the light of truth. In the reign of Constantine was held the first œcumenical council of the Church, at Nice (A.D. 325), to condemn the heresy of Arius, who denied the divinity of Christ, and who had led great numbers into error, Constantine himself favoring him.

12. Founding of Constantinople (A.D. 330).—Constantine, urged by the false representations of his wife, put to death two of his children, whose innocence was afterwards made plain. Stricken with remorse, he left Rome, which had become hateful to him, and resolved on founding a new city and capital for the empire. He selected the site of the ancient Byzantium, on the strait that separates Asia from Europe. There he built a magnificent city called, after himself, Constantinople.

13. Death of Constantine.—Though now over sixty, Constantine marched against Sapor II., King of Persia, who menaced Mesopotamia. The terror of the emperor's name alone sufficed to drive Sapor back. Shortly after Constantine received baptism and died. According to the constitution begun by Diocletian and completed by Constantine, the emperor was invested with absolute and undivided

11. What was the Edict of Milan? Its results? What famous council was held and for what purpose? 12. What city did Constantine found and why? 13. What of Sapor II.? How did Constantine complete the imperial constitution?

power. His person was sacred and his will was law. Seven ministers, chosen by him, were charged with the administration of affairs. He created a new order of nobility to supersede all others. The system was extended throughout the provinces, and the last vestige of republican institutions disappeared.

SECTION II. The three Sons of Constantine: Constantius (337-361 A.D.), Constans (337-350 A.D.), and Constantine II. (337-340 A.D.)

14. Division of the Empire.—Constantine divided the empire among two of his nephews and his three sons, Constantius, Constans, and Constantine. The people, discontented with the division, massacred all Constantine's nephews, save Julian and Gallus. This division of the empire weakened and exposed it to the old dissensions.

15. Death of Constantine II. and Constans.—Constantine II., not content with his portion of Spain, Gaul, and Britain, warred on his brother, Constans, and fell in an ambush near Aquileia (A.D. 340). Constans seized his provinces. Constantius, in the East, was more occupied in sustaining the Arian heresy than in thoughts of conquest. But a revolt under Magnentius, which resulted in the death of Constans, called his brother to the West. Magnentius was defeated in the bloody battle of Mursa, in Pannonia, and fled to Lyons, where, being deserted by his followers, he first slew his family and then himself (A.D. 353).

16. Julian the Apostate (A.D. 361-363).—The whole empire thus fell to Constantius. He gave the title of Cæsar to Julian and sent him to defend Gaul (A.D. 355). Julian was a man of great ability and versatility. He established order in the provinces, discipline in the armies, and

14. How did Constantine divide the Empire? What was the result? 15. What of Constantine II.? Who succeeded to his possessions? Describe the struggle between Constantius and Magnentius. 16. How did Constantius treat Julian?

drove the Franks and Germans out of Gaul. He lessened the taxes, established justice, and built himself a palace in the city of Lutetia (Paris), where he resided. Constantius, jealous of Julian's successes and attacked by the Persians, demanded some of the young Cæsar's best troops. When these arrived at Lutetia they revolted and proclaimed Julian emperor (A.D. 360). Julian accepted the title and advanced to Sirmium to attack Constantius, when the death of the emperor saved Rome from another civil war (A.D. 361).

17. Julian marched to Constantinople, where, as through all the empire, his authority was recognized. Thus far he had pretended to be a Christian. He now made an open profession of idolatry, and the chief bent of his policy seemed to be the suppression of Christianity. He was cunning and crafty in his assault, and not so openly violent as his predecessors; for which reason, doubtless, his efforts met with more success than theirs. But death overtook him in a war against Sapor, King of Persia (A.D. 363), and his army, lured into a desert, almost perished of famine.

18. **Jovian (A.D. 363-364).**—Jovian was chosen emperor by the army, to save which he was compelled to sign a treaty surrendering Armenia and a part of Mesopotamia. He gave every promise of a good and great reign, when he was suddenly found dead in his bed.

19. **Valentinian I. (A.D. 364-375) and Valens (A.D. 364-378).**—Valentinian was the next choice of the army. He was a man of noble presence and noble character. He was a faithful Christian, and avowed himself such in the reign of Julian. But he was violent of temper and so led into cruelty. He chose his brother, Valens, as his colleague in

What of Julian in Gaul? Describe the rupture between Julian and Constantius. 17. What course did Julian pursue on attaining to supreme power? What befell him? 18. Who succeeded Julian? 19. Who succeeded Jovian?

governing the empire. Valens, though good enough morally, was indolent and careless, and the East, to which he was allotted, did not tend to rouse him. He favored the Arians.

20. Valentinian continued to govern wisely and well. Sometimes he resided in Milan, at others in Treves. He watched his frontiers and repelled the barbarians. His evil temper, however, proved fatal to himself, and he died from the rupture of a blood-vessel in a fit of passion (A.D. 375).

21. Beginning of the Invasions.—The Huns, a barbarous people, swarming in from the northeast, drove the Goths, the old foes of Rome, towards the shores of the Danube. The Goths begged permission to cross the Danube and settle in Mœsia as subjects of the empire. Valens first granted their request and then withdrew his permission. The angered Goths revolted and overran the country. Valens took the field against them and was routed and slain near Adrianople (A.D. 378).

22. Gratian (A.D. 375-383); Theodosius the Great (A.D. 378-395).—Gratian had succeeded his father, Valentinian. The death of Valens left him master of the empire. As colleague he chose a very able man, Theodosius. The Goths were utterly routed, great numbers of them becoming subjects of the empire; the rest were pursued beyond the Rhine.

23. In face of such vigorous leadership the other barbarians ceased their irruptions and the Persians sued for peace. All this was the work of the Christian Theodosius, whose mild firmness was more effective than arms. He abolished the worship of idols throughout the empire.

24. Maximus (A.D. 383-388); Valentinian II. (A.D. 375-392).—Gratian, Emperor of the West, was a worthy com-

20. Describe the rule of Valentinian. 21. Who were the Huns? What occasioned the Gothic invasion? Was it successful? 22. What of Gratian and the Goths? Who was Gratian's colleague? 23. Describe the work of Theodosius.

peer of Theodosius, though his passion for hunting led him often to neglect affairs of state. Maximus, one of his generals, taking advantage of his negligence, raised a revolt which resulted in the death of Gratian (A.D. 383).

25. Valentinian II., Gratian's brother, saved himself from the same fate by flying to Thessalonica. Theodosius received the young prince kindly, led him to abjure Arianism, and in the following year accompanied him west to displace Maximus. Maximus was defeated at the Save, and himself taken prisoner at Aquileia. He was slain by the soldiers.

26. Sedition broke out at Antioch (A.D. 388). Theodosius sent two commissaries with severe orders. The terrified inhabitants begged for mercy, and Flavian, Bishop of Antioch, went to Constantinople to intercede for his people. The appeal of the bishop moved the justly-angered emperor to mercy, and the city was saved. A similar revolt occurred at Thessalonica. Theodosius caused seven thousand of the citizens to be slain. But the rebuke of St. Ambrose led him to do public penance for this indiscriminate slaughter (A.D. 390).

27. Assassination of Valentinian II. (A.D. 392).—A new revolution led Theodosius again westward. Valentinian II., young as he was, governed with such prudence as to give promise of great good, when he was assassinated by Arbogastes, the general of his armies (A.D. 392). Arbogastes called Eugenius, one of his associates, to the throne. Theodosius forced the passage of the Alps from the Illyrian side, and, descending the mountains, found an army much more numerous than his own opposed to him under the combined pagan and Christian banners.

24. What befell Gratian? 25. What of Valentinian II. and Maximus? 26. What city revolted? By whom was Antioch saved? Tell of the revolt at Thessalonica. 27. What befell Valentinian II.? Who was set on the throne?

28. They fought near Aquileia, and victory declared for the rebels. They spent the night in debauchery, Theodosius in prayer. At dawn next morning he renewed the fight, and, favored by the elements, threw the victors into confusion. Arbogastes slew himself in despair. Eugenius, brought by his own soldiers to Theodosius, was executed. The vanquished army rejoiced in their defeat and fraternized with the conquerors. Theodosius died at Milan in the arms of St. Ambrose (A.D. 395). He well deserved his title of "Great."

29. **The Church in the Fourth Century.**—Although the Christian Church was declared free by Constantine the Great, she had still to encounter much persecution and to overcome paganism and heresy. Great men rose up in her bosom to defend and illustrate the faith and to expose at once the errors both of paganism and heresy. St. Athanasius, who assisted at the first Council of Nice, was one of the most celebrated of these Christian doctors. Appointed to the see of Alexandria, he was the object of hatred to the Arians, who, favored by temporal authority, were very powerful. Often wandering or in exile, he finally died peacefully at Alexandria after an episcopate of forty-seven years (A.D. 326-373). St. Hilary, Bishop of Poitiers, a contemporary of St. Athanasius, did like service in the Latin Church.

30. The Greek Church at this period has many illustrious names—St. Basil, Bishop of Cæsarea; St. Gregory, Bishop of Nazianzen; St. John Chrysostom, and others. The great St. Ambrose has identified his name with Milan. He converted St. Augustine, who with St. Jerome became pillars of faith in the West.

31. The chief agent of the Church in winning the

28. Describe the battle of Aquileia. How did Theodosius die? 29. How did Christianity progress? What of St. Athanasius? Of St. Hilary? 30. Name some of the Greek Fathers. What of St. Ambrose, St. Augustine, St. Jerome?

world from paganism was the pure example of a Christian life in the great body of its members. This was something to be seen and noted every day; and the world could not close its eyes to the contrast between the pagan and Christian doctrines as exemplified in the lives of those who practised the one and the other. In addition came the martyrs who suffered death for the faith in the various persecutions. Then, too, monasticism, leading to lives of extraordinary mortification, retirement, meditation, and prayer, showed itself in the East to rebuke a world sunk in sensuality and self-indulgence. Monasticism spread to the West and took fast hold there. St. Paul the Hermit and St. Antony were great promoters of monasticism in the East. In the West St. Martin founded the first monastery at Ligugé, near Poitiers (A.D. 370).

32. The new doctrines that the Church taught to all were the sanctity and inviolability of marriage, which constitutes the keystone of family life; the virtue of chastity; charity towards all; love for the poor and suffering; limitation of the excessive authority of the father; mutual obligations between superior and inferior; and the equality of all men in the sight of God, which in time led to the abolition of slavery.

31. What was the chief agent in the overthrow of paganism? What was the work of the martyrs? What part did monasticism play? Who were the chief promoters of monasticism East and West? State the Christian doctrines.

HISTORY OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

THE history of the Middle Ages begins with the death of Theodosius the Great (A.D. 395) and ends with the taking of Constantinople by the Turks (A.D. 1453). This period embraces the transition from the old pagan to Christian civilization, the disruption of the Roman Empire, and the laying the foundations of modern European states on its ruins. It is divided into five epochs: 1. *The barbaric invasions and conversion of the barbarians*: from the death of Theodosius the Great to the death of St. Gregory the Great (A.D. 395–604). 2. *The formation of Christian Europe*: from the death of St. Gregory the Great to the death of Charlemagne (A.D. 604–814). 3. *Feudal Europe*: from the death of Charlemagne to the accession of Gregory VII. (A.D. 814–1073). 4. *The Papacy and Catholic Europe*: from the accession of Gregory VII. to the death of St. Louis (A.D. 1073–1270). 5. *Religious and Political Anarchy*: from the death of St. Louis to the taking of Constantinople by the Turks (A.D. 1270–1453).

FIRST EPOCH (A.D. 395–604).

FROM THE DEATH OF THEODOSIUS THE GREAT TO THE DEATH OF ST. GREGORY THE GREAT—209 YEARS.

THE first epoch of the Middle Ages comprises the invasions of the barbarians and their conversion. The German tribes occupied the Western Empire and founded several kingdoms. At the death of St. Gregory all the tribes in the empire had embraced Christianity.

CHAPTER I.

THE BARBARIC INVASIONS AND FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE (395–476).

SECTION I. Honorius (395–423); Alaric and Radagasius.

1. **Division of the Roman Empire (395).**—Theodosius the Great divided the empire between his two sons, Arcadius

Where does the history of the Middle Ages begin and end? Give the various divisions. What does the first epoch of the Middle Ages embrace? How far had Christianity spread at the death of St. Gregory?

and Honorius ; Honorius receiving the Western and Arcadius the Eastern Empire. The young princes were placed under the tutelage of two ministers, each ambitious and jealous of the other. Stilicho, a Vandal, ruled in the name of Honorius, and Rufinus, a Gaul, in that of Arcadius. Stilicho resolved on governing both empires. To defeat his schemes Rufinus connived at a Visigothic invasion.

2. Invasion of Alaric (395-396).—These Visigoths, or Western Goths, had been allies of Theodosius the Great, and as such were allowed to settle in Moesia (now Bulgaria). Alaric, their chief, eagerly took up Rufinus' invitation and ravaged the weakened empire up to the walls of Constantinople. It was the first appearance of the barbarians before the city. Rufinus, boasting that he would save the state, bought them off, giving them at the same time permission to pillage the rest of Greece.

3. Athens was only saved by a ransom ; Corinth was destroyed and the Peloponnesus laid waste. Stilicho hastened with all his forces to meet the invader ; but the Eastern legions were called away to Constantinople. On their arrival Rufinus was slain by one of Stilicho's emissaries. Alaric, having escaped with his forces from Stilicho, was named by Arcadius commander of the militia in the Illyrian prefecture (396), and was thus won over to the Eastern Empire.

4. Alaric in Italy (401-403).—Alaric assumed the title of King of the Visigoths. Entering the Western Empire through the plains of Lombardy, he marched against Milan, which Honorius had made his capital. Stilicho, hastening up, conveyed the emperor to Ravenna, which he made the imperial residence because it was thought impregnable both by land and sea. On Easter day (403) he gave battle to the barbarians under the walls of Pollentia. The Christians

1. How did Theodosius divide the empire ? Who were appointed ministers ? What came of their rivalry ? 2. Describe Alaric's invasion. 3. How was Alaric pacified ? 4. Tell of Alaric's campaign in Italy.

were conspicuous by their bravery, and Alaric lost the flower of his army, his wife, children, and treasures.

5. Alaric, beaten again near Verona, returned to Illyria, while Honorius and Stilicho entered Rome in triumph. At the games held in their honor Telemachus, a monk, entered the arena, and, kneeling amid the gladiators, besought the people to abolish so inhuman an amusement. He was struck dead by a gladiator, but the martyr's blood put the seal on the gladiatorial combats, which were thenceforth for ever abolished. (See p. 131.)

6. **The Great Invasion of 406; Radagasius in Italy.**—As the Visigoths withdrew the German tribes, pushed on by the Huns, poured down from the north and east towards the Danube and the foot of the Alps. Two hundred thousand of them, under the command of Radagasius, descended the valley of the Adige. All Italy was stricken with terror, and the pagans clamored for the restoration of the ancient sacrifices to appease the gods. But the Christians had confidence in the cross. Florence made a prolonged resistance and stayed the advance of the invaders while Stilicho came up with thirty legions, freed the city, drove the barbarians back on the rocks of Fiesole, and there compelled them to lay down their arms. Radagasius was beheaded and his comrades sold as slaves.

7. **The great Invasion in Gaul (406-409).**—The defeat of Radagasius terrified the tribes who lined the Danube. Turning from Italy, about four hundred thousand of them, composed of Vandals, Alans, Suevi, and Burgundians, entered Gaul, sacked Mayence, Strassburg, Metz, Rheims, and others of the principal cities. Honorius, fearing for Italy, left the provinces to themselves. The Roman legions, whom he had recalled from Britain, revolted and proclaimed Con-

5. What happened after the defeat of Alaric? 6. Who now invaded the empire? Who was their leader? How were they beaten back? 7. What occurred in Gaul? What action did Honorius take?

stantine, one of their captains, emperor (407). He was acknowledged in Gaul, and afterwards by Honorius. Promising to liberate Gaul, he was spared the task by the departure of the barbarians for Spain (409) in quest of fresh conquests.

8. Alaric again in Italy (408-410).—Alaric, encamped at the passes into Italy, negotiated with the other barbarians with a view to striking a final blow at the empire. Stilicho undertook to win him over, when Honorius, fearful for his throne and of the designs of his ambitious minister, signed the latter's death-warrant. Stilicho was beheaded, and those of his friends who failed to find refuge with Alaric shared his fate.

9. Alaric crossed the Alps and marched on Rome. He was bought off by a very large ransom (409); but Honorius, in Ravenna, refusing to ratify the treaty, Alaric again appeared before Rome. While still negotiating Honorius suddenly attacked him, but was beaten off. Alaric, enraged, besieged the city, entered it under cover of night, and gave it up for six days to the fury of his followers (410). Everything was destroyed, and only those who sought refuge in the churches of SS. Peter and Paul were spared. The conqueror, laden with spoils, marched southwards to complete his conquest, but died on the way at Cosenza (410).

10. The Visigoths in Gaul and Spain (412-419).—Ataulf, Alaric's successor, entered the service of Honorius, who commissioned him to bring back Gaul and Spain into subjection. Constantine was besieged in Arles and taken prisoner (411). Ataulf overcame all opposition and finally espoused Placidia, the sister of Honorius, at Narbonne. She had become his captive at the sacking of Rome. After

What of Constantine? 8. What became of Stilicho? 9. Describe Alaric's new invasion. What befell Rome? 10. Tell of Ataulf and his exploits. Whom did he marry?

pacifying Gaul he entered Spain, but was assassinated at Barcelona.

11. Wallia, Ataulf's successor, carried on the work of subjugation with such success that he was given by Honorius the south of Gaul as far as the Garonne, which he joined to his conquests in Spain and formed into the kingdom of the Visigoths, with Toulouse for a capital. The kingdom of the Suevi, in Galicia, was founded and recognized at the same time. The kingdom of the Burgundians, between the Saone and the Rhone, had already been ceded to Gundicarius (413). Britain was formally abandoned in 409, and the independence of the Armorican cities between the Seine and the Loire acknowledged. Thus at Honorius' death (423) the Western Empire was already dismembered and consisted of only a part of Gaul with Africa and Italy.

SECTION II. Valentinian III. (424-455); Genseric and Attila; the Vandals in Africa (429).

12. **Invasion of the Vandals.**—Valentinian III., a nephew of Honorius, and a minor, succeeded him. He was the son of Placidia by her marriage with Constantius. His mother, a woman of great virtue and capacity, ruled in his name, aided by the generals Aëtius, master of the horse, and Boniface, governor of Africa. Rivalry between the generals led to a new invasion. Boniface revolted and summoned the Vandals to his aid. Genseric, King of the Vandals (428-477), crossed the strait of Gades (Gibraltar) and ravaged Mauritania (429).

13. Boniface strove too late to undo the mischief he had wrought. He was defeated and shut up in Hippo, which

11. Who succeeded Ataulf? What kingdom did Wallia found? Tell of other kingdoms formed out of the empire. What was left of the empire? 12. Who succeeded Honorius? What invasion occurred?

capitulated after a siege of fourteen months. During the siege died the great St. Augustine, Bishop of Hippo. Genseric, siding with the Arians against the Catholics, had the support of the heretics. He devastated Roman Africa, which was called the granary of Rome. It is said that five millions of people perished in this invasion, and the fertile regions over which the Vandals passed were turned into a desert. Genseric seized Carthage and made it his capital (439); and his maritime power soon became as formidable as that of the ancient Carthaginians.

14. Attila's Invasion (450-451).—Boniface had been pardoned by Placidia; but Aëtius, resolved on his destruction, in turn invited the Huns against him. The allies were defeated, but Boniface perished. Aëtius, to redeem his character by military exploits, defeated the Burgundians and Visigoths, drove the Franks towards the Scheldt (447), and restored the imperial authority throughout most of Gaul. Genseric, trembling for his safety, incited the Huns to a new invasion.

15. The Huns, a combination of the nomadic tribes of Western Asia, had pushed their conquests into Europe, where they had settled for half a century (433-453). Then Attila became their sole king. This most renowned of barbaric warriors, to whom the name was justly given of “the Scourge of God,” seemed born to be an agent of destruction. At Genseric's invitation he gathered his men together and poured them upon the Eastern Empire. They passed like a tornado, and more than sixty important cities were destroyed. The weak Theodosius II. paid him tribute, but Marcian, the successor of Theodosius, refused to pay it.

16. Attila then turned his arms westward and set out

13. Tell of the siege of Hippo and of Genseric's African campaign. 14. What followed between Boniface and Aëtius? 15. Who was Attila? What empire did he invade? How was he stayed?

for Gaul at the head of a horde of half a million barbarians. Crossing the Rhine, he sacked Metz, Rheims, and the other cities that fell in his way. Troyes was spared at the intercession of St. Lupus, its bishop, and Paris owed its safety to the prayers of St. Genevieve. He was about to give up Orleans to pillage when St. Aignan, its bishop, announced the arrival of the Romans. The legions of Aëtius, reinforced by the Franks, Visigoths, and a multitude of other allies under Theodoric, compelled Attila to withdraw. He halted on the vast plain of Chalons-sur-Marne, and there one of the bloodiest battles in history ensued between the two largest armies that Europe had seen. Theodoric, the brave king of the Visigoths, fell, but the Huns were beaten. Aëtius, though victorious, allowed the enemy to recross the Rhine unmolested (451).

17. Attila in Italy (452).—Attila, to avenge his defeat, entered Italy and ravaged it from Aquileia, which he burnt, to Milan, which he set up for ransom. The inhabitants of Venetia, stricken with terror at his approach, fled for refuge to the islands of the Adriatic, where they founded the city of Venice. The emperor, Valentinian III., fled from Ravenna to Rome. Doubting the fidelity of Aëtius, he sent an embassy, headed by the Pope, St. Leo the Great, to Attila. The barbarian, struck with veneration for the pontiff, consented, on payment of a vast sum, to leave Italy; threatening, however, to return the following year unless half the empire was ceded to him with the hand of Honoria, the emperor's sister. Death overtook him on the banks of the Theiss (453).

18. Attila's empire disappeared with him; the Huns dispersed; the peoples that they had conquered recovered

16. What brought Attila westward? Describe his course. What occurred at Chalons? 17. What of Attila in Italy? How was he stayed? 18. What became of Attila's empire?

their independence and formed distinct states, the most powerful of which were the Gepidæ, on the left bank of the Theiss, and the Ostrogoths, in Pannonia. With the defeat of the Huns Valentinian III. felt secure, and to rid himself of Aëtius, whom he feared, slew him (454). A few months later he was himself assassinated at the instigation of the senator Petronius Maximus, and with him ended the family of Theodosius the Great.

SECTION III. The Last Emperors and the Confederates.

19. Sacking of Rome by Genseric (455).—Maximus compelled Eudoxia, the widow of his victim, to marry him, and usurped the throne. Eudoxia called upon Genseric to help her break the bonds she loathed. The Vandal monarch hastened to obey the call. Maximus, fleeing from Rome, was stoned by the populace. The city was given up to pillage for fourteen days and nights. Nothing was spared. Eudoxia and her children, with sixty thousand captives, were carried off to Carthage.

20. Ricimer and Odoacer.—Rome now became the prey of the barbarians, who appointed emperors at their pleasure. Ricimer, of the Suevi, held the privilege of appointing for sixteen years. He could have seized the power himself, but preferred to instal his creatures. In twenty years eight emperors either perished or were deposed.

21. At the death of Ricimer (472) Orestes, who had formerly been in the councils of Attila, undertook to dispose of the purple. He bestowed it on his own son, then a child, named Romulus Augustulus. He was the last and weakest of the Western emperors. The confederates, now masters of Italy, established themselves there as the bar-

What befell Aëtius? And Valentinian? 19. What brought Genseric to Rome? The result? 20. Who next ruled in Rome? 21. Who was the last emperor of Rome?

barians had done in the other provinces of the empire. Most conspicuous among their chiefs was Odoacer, of the Heruli. In the name of the confederates he demanded a third of the lands of Italy. Being refused, Orestes was taken and slain in Pavia (476), and Romulus Augustulus was compelled to abdicate. He retired into private life and ended his days in peace.

22. Odoacer was proclaimed king. He sent an embassy to Zeno, Emperor of the East, acknowledging his supremacy. Zeno thought it politic to allow Odoacer to retain his title with the government of Italy. Thus ended the Empire of the West (476). It had lasted five hundred and seven years from the battle of Actium and one thousand two hundred and twenty-nine years from the foundation of Rome. It had grown so feeble that its final extinction had no effect upon the world.

CHAPTER II.

GAUL—THE MEROVINGIAN FRANKS.

SECTION I. Clovis I. and his Conquests (481-511).

1. **The Franks.**—The name of Franks first appears in the middle of the third century. It was applied to a confederation of German tribes between the Rhine and the Weser. It meant free men. The Franks were formidable to the Romans, and were among the first of the barbarians allowed to settle in the empire. After the great invasion of 406 they renounced allegiance to the empire and took possession of the northern part of Gaul.

What was Odoacer's demand and the result of it? 22. What title was given Odoacer? Who acknowledged it? How long had the Empire of the West lasted? 1. Who were the Franks? Where did they settle?

2. In 448 Clodion, their king, seized Tournai and penetrated as far as Sens, where he was defeated by Aëtius. His successor, Merovæus, aided the Romans in their struggle with Attila (451). Childeric succeeded him, but whatever fame he had is lost in that of his great son, Clovis, who ascended the throne in 481, though only sixteen years old at the time.

3. **Conquests of Clovis.**—Clovis resolved on conquering Gaul, which was split up into a number of hostile tribes. The north of the country, from the Somme to the Rhine, was occupied by the Franks; to the east, between the Rhine and the Vosges, were the Germans, or Alemanni; the Burgundians held the territory between the Saone, the Rhone, and the Alps; the Visigoths had conquered the south of Gaul as far as the Loire; to the west were the Bretons, refugees from Britain, the confederation of the Armorican cities, and a Saxon colony at Bayeux; while in the lands between the Loire and the Somme Syagrius ruled over the Gallo-Romans who survived the fall of the Roman Empire.

4. Clovis marched from Tournai against Syagrius, whom he defeated near Soissons (486). He then possessed himself of nearly all the country as far as the Loire. His marriage (493) with Clotilda, a Catholic princess, brought him several important cities. He next defeated the Alemanni at Tolbiac (496). This was followed by his conversion to the Catholic faith. He was baptized by St. Remi, Bishop of Rheims (496), and was followed by many of his warriors. At this time he was the sole Catholic prince in the world, and the Franks were the first of the barbarians to renounce their idols and embrace the true faith.

2. What of Clodion? Merovæus? Childeric? 3. How was Gaul divided at this time? What was the plan of Clovis? 4. Describe Clovis' march. Whom did he marry? What did he become?

5. The Bretons and Armoricans submitted to his rule, but the Burgundians and the Visigoths, who were Arians, held out under their king, Gundobald, who had murdered his brothers, one of whom was the father of Clotilda. Gundobald was defeated at Dijon and had to submit to an annual tribute (500). The Visigoths suffered a more disastrous defeat at Voglode, or Vouillé, where they lost their king, Alaric, the flower of their army, and Aquitania (507), there only remaining to them in Gaul the sea-coast between the Rhone and the Pyrenees, thenceforth called Gothland, or Septimania. Theodoric, King of the Ostrogoths, obtained from them the title of king, and drove the Franks from Provence, which he added to his realm.

6. After returning from his conquests Clovis received from Anastasius, Emperor of the East, the title of patrician and consul, which legalized all his possessions in the eyes of his subjects. He was zealous for the faith, a friend to the pope, and died at Paris (511), which he made his capital.

SECTION II. Wars and Conquests of Clovis' Successors till the Death of Dagobert I. (511-638).

7. **The four Sons of Clovis.**—The kingdom of Clovis was divided among his four sons: Thierry dwelt at Metz, Clodomir at Orleans, Childebert at Paris, and Clotaire I. at Soissons. Clotilda induced all except Thierry to unite against Sigismund, King of the Burgundians, and eldest son and successor of Gundobald. Sigismund was taken prisoner and drowned by order of Clodomir. The latter, after gaining a victory near Vesperonce (524), fell into the hands of the Burgundians, by whom he was put to death. He left three children, two of whom were murdered by their

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5. Who opposed Clovis? What occurred at Vouillé? Who rescued the Visigoths? 6. What title was bestowed on Clovis? What was his character? 7. How was the kingdom of Clovis divided? The result?

uncles Childebert and Clotaire. The youngest escaped and became celebrated for his virtues under the name of St. Cloud.

8. Gondemar, Sigismund's brother and successor, maintained the struggle against the Franks for ten years, but at last yielded, and the kingdom of the Burgundians lost its independence (534). Thierry, King of Austrasia, had already conquered Thuringia (530). Theodebert (534-548), his son and successor, was the most renowned of the Merovingians after Clovis. He obtained Provence in return for services rendered the Greeks and Ostrogoths, whom he afterwards defeated in Italy and ravaged the country (539). He was about to undertake an expedition against the Emperor Justinian when he died. The Austrasian Franks made a second expedition into Italy under his son Theodebald, but nearly all perished either by the plague or the sword of the Greeks. Childebert and Clotaire were more successful in an expedition into Spain. Thus within a short time the Franks were not only masters of Gaul, but extended their conquests beyond the Rhine, the Alps, and the Pyrenees. Clotaire I. became sole king in 558, but only enjoyed his power for three years.

9. **Rivalry of Neustria and Austrasia (568-613).**—When Clotaire died the monarchy was again divided among his four sons—Caribert, King of Paris; Gontran, of Orleans and Burgundy; Chilperic, of Soissons; and Sigebert, of Metz. The brothers quarrelled and civil war broke out on all sides. Chilperic invaded Austrasia, but was beaten back. Sigebert in turn invaded Neustria and captured Paris, when he fell at the hand of an assassin (575). His son, a minor, ascended the throne under the title of Childebert II., his uncle Gontran being his guardian. Gontran, by the treaty

8. What became of Burgundy and of Thuringia? Tell of Theodebert. What happened under Theodebald? Under whom were the Franks united? 9. What occurred after the death of Clotaire? How did Gontran win over the nobles?

of Andelot (587), secured to the nobles the life possession of their estates, thus securing their allegiance at the same time.

10. The internal troubles of the kingdom were added to and intensified by the rivalries of the respective princesses, especially Fredegunda and Brunehaut. Fredegunda proclaimed her son king of Neustria under the name of Clotaire II. (584). At the death of Gontran (593) war broke out between the women. Fredegunda defeated Childebart near Droissy, and his two sons, Theodebert and Thierry, at Latofao, when she died in the midst of her triumphs (597). Brunehaut then again entered Neustria, and was on the point of overwhelming Clotaire II. when the death of one of her grandsons and the defection of the other left her without a leader. She was taken by Clotaire and dragged to death at the tail of a wild horse (613).

11. Clotaire II. and Dagobert I. (613-638).—Clotaire II., already King of Neustria, became sole master of the empire of the Franks (613). By his famous *constitution*, published at Paris (615), he left to the Austrasian lords the election of the *mayors of the palace* and to the clergy the choice of the prelates.

12. Dagobert I. (628-638), the eldest son and successor of Clotaire, was a wise and powerful prince. He established a splendid court at Paris. His throne, of massive gold, was made by St. Eloi, the most skilful goldsmith of his age. Dagobert's friendship was sought by all the monarchs of the time, even by the emperor of the East. He ruled from the Pyrenees to the Weser, and from the ocean to the frontiers of Bohemia. When Caribert, his brother, died, Aquitania fell to him. The Bavarians, Alemanni, Frisians, Thuringians, and Saxons

10. Tell of Fredegunda and Brunehaut. What befell them both? 11. Who now became king of the Franks? What of Clotaire's *constitution*? 12. Describe the reign of Dagobert. What was the extent of his kingdom?

paid him tribute. He held sway over the Lombards in Italy, and gave a king to the Visigoths in Spain. Before his death he was obliged to name his eldest son king of Austrasia, and lived to see the beginning of the decline of the Merovingian monarchy

CHAPTER III.

GREAT BRITAIN—THE ANGLO-SAXONS.

1. The Romans in Britain.—Julius Cæsar passed over from Gaul into the island of Britain and made some conquests there. In the following century the whole island, save the northern part, inhabited by the Picts and Scots, was conquered by the Romans. To save the Britons from the incursions of these fierce tribes walls were built right across the narrowest northern part of the island. So dependent did the Britons become on the Roman arms that when deserted by Honorius in 407 they addressed a pitiful appeal to Rome, known as “the groans of the Britons.” Being unable to repel their assailants, Vortigern, their chief, called to their aid the sea-rovers inhabiting the coasts of Scandinavia (449).

2. Invasion of the Saxons and Angles (449-584).—A band of these pirates, under the brothers Hengist and Horsa, landed on the isle of Thanet. This island was promised them if they repelled the Picts and Scots. Being reinforced by others of their countrymen, they beat off the Caledonians, and then set to work to possess themselves of the lands of their allies. Joining with the Picts, they held the country between the lower Thames and the English

1. How came the Romans into Britain? What followed the Roman conquest? What was the action of Vortigern? 2. What of Hengist and Horsa? What kingdom did Hengist found?

Channel. Hengist founded the kingdom of Kent, of which Canterbury became the capital (455).

3. Hengist's success and the richness of the soil led to other Saxon invasions. The Britons were easily overcome. The kingdoms of Sussex, Wessex, and Essex, or South, West, and East Saxony, were founded, East Saxony having London for a capital (526). To the Saxon invaders succeeded the Angles under their chief, Idda, called the *Firebrand*. These landed on the east coast, and, after subduing the Britons, there founded the kingdoms of Northumbria, East Anglia, and Mercia.

4. **The Heptarchy.**—These seven kingdoms, called the *Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy*, were at first independent of each other. They afterwards formed a confederation under one chief (*Bretwalda*), who presided over a general assembly (*Witenagemote*, or council of the wise). Still, they were forever fighting among themselves and with the Britons, who, taking refuge in the mountain fastnesses of Wales, made constant incursions on the invaders, and succeeded in maintaining their independence up to the reign of Edward I. (1283). Others of them retreated to Cumberland, Cornwall, and Armorica in France, called after them Bretagne. But Cumberland and Cornwall soon lost their independence.

5. **Conversion of the Anglo-Saxons (597).**—Britain received the Catholic faith in the second century. St. Alban was martyred there during the persecution of Diocletian (303). Religion was beginning to flourish in the island when it disappeared with the Roman civilization; the barbarians came, and the work had all to be done over again. Gregory the Deacon, seeing some beautiful youths for sale as slaves in Rome, inquired who they were, and, finding they were from Britain, was moved with the desire of con-

3. What followed Hengist's success? Name the kingdoms founded. What of the Angles? 4. What was the Heptarchy? What became of the Britons? 5. How and when did Britain receive the faith?

verting the race. Afterwards becoming pope, he sent forty missionaries under Augustine to the land of the Angles, thenceforward called England (Angle-land).

6. Augustine and his brother-monks landed on the isle of Thanet. They were received with favor by Ethelbert, King of Kent and chief of the Heptarchy, whose wife, Bertha, a daughter of Caribert, King of Paris, was a Catholic. The king and a number of his people were converted. Augustine was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and commissioned by the pope to establish a Catholic hierarchy and evangelize the country.

CHAPTER IV.

SPAIN—THE VISIGOTHS.

1. **The Visigoths in Gaul and Spain (419-507).**—The kingdom of the Visigoths, founded by Wallia (419), comprised Spain and the south of Gaul as far as the Garonne. In the fifth century it was the most powerful of the states formed out of the ruins of the Roman Empire. Theodoric I., Wallia's successor, fell gloriously against Attila on the bloody field of Chalons-sur-Marne. His three sons, Thorismond, Theodoric II., and Euric, who in turn succeeded him, completed the subjugation of Spain and extended their possessions in Gaul to the Loire and the Alps. Their court was the centre of great refinement and luxury. But their power fell before Clovis (507), who only left to them in Gaul that portion of the sea-coast called after them Gothland, or Septimania.

2. **Conversion of the Visigoths (587).**—The Visigoths ad-

Who was the apostle to the English? 6. How was St. Augustine received? Of what see did he become the head? 1. Sketch the early history of Spain. Who overthrew the Visigoths?

hered to Arianism. Amalric married Clotilda, daughter of Clovis, but treated her so brutally that her brothers, Clotaire and Childebert, crossed the Pyrenees and defeated and slew him. With him perished the illustrious family of Alaric (531). In the dispute for the succession Athanagild called the Greeks into Spain and bestowed the hands of his daughters, Brunehaut and Galasuinde, on the kings of Austrasia and Neustria. But the crown soon passed to a king of another family.

3. Leovigild (569-586) drove out the Greeks and subdued the Suevi (585), who, one hundred and sixty-six years previously, had founded an independent kingdom in Galicia. They were converted to Christianity in 562. Hermenegild, son of Leovigild, abjured Arianism and took refuge with the Suevi. The father, a fierce Arian, seized his son, and, on his refusal to receive communion at the hands of an Arian bishop, had him beheaded. His brother, Recared, ascended the throne, abjured Arianism, and was followed by the greater number of his people (587). By his wisdom, aided by St. Leander, Archbishop of Seville, heresy soon disappeared; but the morals of the people long continued very corrupt.

CHAPTER V.

ITALY AND THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

WHEN the Western Empire fell Italy, in less than a century (476-568), passed successively under the sway of the Heruli, Ostrogoths, Greeks, and Lombards.

SECTION I. Italy under the Heruli.

1. Odoacer (476-493).—Odoacer, chief of the Heruli, after deposing Romulus Augustulus, abolished the title of

2. How did the family of Alaric disappear? What followed on its disappearance? 3. What of Leovigild? How and under whom did the Visigoths become Christian? Who helped to establish Christianity?

emperor and made himself king of Italy. He distributed among his tribe and the rest of the confederate barbarians a third of the lands of Italy, thus securing their allegiance. From Ravenna to the Danube his arms were victorious, and Rome grew proud of her warrior-king, who had the wisdom to leave her her senate and ancient constitutions. Though an Arian and a ruler of pagans, he was kind to the Church and alive to the worth of the true religion in guiding his people.

SECTION II. The Ostrogoths; Theodoric the Great and his Successors.

2. The Ostrogoths overrun Italy.—The Ostrogoths, established in Pannonia since the dispersion of the Huns, were governed by Theodoric, a chief of the family of the Amales. Bred at the Byzantine court, he had all the gifts and graces of civilization covering a barbaric nature. His victories made him so dangerous that the Emperor Zeno ceded to him all his rights over Italy. Theodoric called his Goths together, and, at the head of two hundred thousand warriors, poured into Italy through the northern passes. He beat Odoacer at Isonzo and Verona, but was stayed in Liguria until the Visigoths under Alaric II. came up to his aid.

3. Odoacer sustained a total defeat on the Adige and shut himself up in Ravenna, where he was blockaded for three years, Rome and the rest of Italy submitting to Theodoric. To secure Ravenna, which he wished for a capital, Theodoric promised to share the government of Italy with Odoacer if the latter surrendered. Odoacer consented, and at a banquet given to celebrate the event he and his followers were treacherously murdered by Theodoric (March 5, 493).

1. Where did Odoacer rule? Describe his reign. 2. Who was Theodoric? What was his character? Tell of his invasion. 3. Where did Odoacer take refuge? How was Ravenna won?

4. Reign of Theodoric.—Theodoric had now no rival, and assumed the title of King of the Goths and Romans. His empire soon reached from Italy to the Theiss, the Upper Danube, and the Rhone, and included Sicily, ceded by the king of the Vandals. As guardian of his grandson, Amalric, he governed southern Gaul, and by family ties, treaties, and victories became the most powerful monarch of his time.

5. A third of the conquered lands and slaves was assigned to the Goths, with the obligation of paying taxes. The revenues thus acquired were employed in building palaces, restoring ancient monuments, in games and shows, and in fitting out a fleet to protect the coasts. The king loved the arts, favored letters, the study of law, reformed the legislative and judicial procedure, and made wise provisions for the government of the various peoples under his rule. The study of jurisprudence and of letters he left to the Romans; to the Goths the art of war.

6. To the Catholics Theodoric had been kind and impartial. He strove to reconcile the see of Constantinople with that of Rome. He abolished the law of Odoacer which made the election of the popes subject to the approval of princes, and favored worthy Catholic bishops and priests. These good dispositions did not last, however. As years came he became drawn into the religious quarrels of the time and lent his ear to intrigues. These turned him from his steady, impartial attitude into a bitter persecutor of the Church. The illustrious Boethius was one of his victims. Pope John I. was imprisoned by his order at Ravenna, where he died, and Theodoric survived him only three months (526).

7. Successors of Theodoric.—To Theodoric succeeded his

4. What title did Theodoric assume? What was his empire? 5. How did Theodoric reward the Goths? What measures did he introduce? 6. How did Theodoric treat the Church? Was he always a protector of the Church?

grandson, Athalaric, whose mother, Amalasontha, ruled in harmony with the emperors of the East. The Goths desiring to educate the prince after their own fashion, his mother raised her cousin Theodotus to the throne in concert with herself. Theodotus rewarded his benefactress by strangling her (535).

SECTION III. The Eastern Empire after Theodosius; Reign of Justinian (527-565).

8. Arcadius and his Successors.—With Arcadius, eldest son of Theodosius the Great, begins the history of the emperors of Constantinople. It is a miserable history for the most part, and is fitly designated as that of the *Lower Empire*. The weakness of Arcadius has been shown in the manner in which he attempted to repel the barbaric invasions. He kept himself aloof from the public gaze, and the energy of his wife, Eudoxia, was chiefly devoted to her persecution of St. John Chrysostom.

9. Theodosius II., the son and successor of Arcadius, was a worthy son of such a sire. His reign is celebrated for the promulgation of a code and the holding of the great councils of Ephesus. His sister, St. Pulcheria, succeeded to the throne in conjunction with Marcian. Both were models of virtue and rendered great service to both Church and state. With them ended the dynasty of Theodosius the Great (457).

10. Thracian Dynasty.—Leo I., a tribune of Thracian birth, was chosen to succeed Marcian. He was the first prince to receive the crown from the hands of a pontiff—the patriarch Anatolius. He protected his frontiers, but failed against the Vandals in Africa. Attributing his defeat to the patrician Aspar, who was chiefly instrumental

7. What happened after the death of Theodoric? 8. Who was Arcadius? What point in history does he mark? 9. For what is the reign of Theodosius II. remarkable? Who succeeded him? 10. How did the Thracian dynasty begin?

in raising him to the throne, he had him put to death. At the death of Leo his father-in-law, Zeno, assumed the regency, and on the death of his own son, whom he had named Leo II., he became emperor. His reign was a prolonged turmoil in Church and state. The Empire of the West was left to dissolve as best it might. Anastasius, an old man of sixty, who knew nothing of war, succeeded Zeno, and had to defend the empire against the Scenitic Arabs, the Bulgarians, and Cabad, the King of Persia. Cabad was bought off. Anastasius was only strong in upholding the heresy of Eutyches during the twenty-seven years of his reign (491-518).

11. The Justinian Dynasty.—Justin I., an unlettered old man of seventy, was called by his soldiers to succeed Anastasius. His vigor restored Catholicity in the East and repelled the Persians. He adopted as heir his nephew, Justinian, who succeeded him.

12. Reign of Justinian (527-565).—Justinian became a prominent figure in history. He had two famous generals, Belisarius and Narses. Belisarius was sent against Gelimer (534), who had dethroned Hilderic, fifth king of the Vandals, and renewed the persecution of the Catholics. Carthage fell, and Gelimer was defeated and taken prisoner at Tricameron. After restoring all Africa to allegiance Belisarius returned in triumph, laden with the spoils of the Vandals.

13. War against the Ostrogoths.—In the same year (534) Justinian declared war against the Ostrogoths of Italy. Belisarius entered Sicily and passed thence into Italy, where he took Rhegium and Naples (536). Theodatus, King of the Goths, was deposed and put to death by Vitiges, who assumed command. Despite the vigor of the new mon-

What followed on the death of Leo? 11. For what was the reign of Justin I. remarkable? 12. Who were Belisarius and Narses? Tell of Belisarius in Africa. 13. What further exploits did Belisarius perform?

arch Belisarius advanced and entered Rome. Here Vitiges, at the head of an army of one hundred and fifty thousand Goths, besieged him. The siege lasted a year and was memorable for the heroic defence, against great odds, made by Belisarius. A plague compelled Vitiges to raise the siege and thinned the ranks of the Austrasian Franks, who were pouring into Italy from the North. Belisarius left Rome and marched on Ravenna, where Vitiges lay. The latter surrendered and was led captive to Constantinople (540).

14. Belisarius next turned against the Persians, who, under Khosroes I., were ravaging Syria. Meanwhile the Ostrogoths of Italy had again risen under the valiant Totila. Belisarius was recalled to Italy, but his success was small. Again recalled, Narses, at the head of a barbarian army, was sent to replace him, and in July, 552, he gained the bloody battle of Tagina, which was followed by the death of Totila. Teias, who resumed the struggle, was defeated and slain near Vesuvius. The remnants of the Goths were allowed to pass the Alps. An army of Austrasian Franks that arrived too late to assist Teias ravaged the country, but was decimated by disease and crushed by Narses near Casilin. Italy was restored to the empire and Narses was made its first exarch (554).

15. **Policy of Justinian.**—These conquests were completed by the submission of Sardinia, Corsica, the Balearic Isles, and southern Spain. But the northern frontiers of the empire were still weak against the Lombards of Pannonia, the Avari, and the Bulgarians of the lower Danube, while the eastern frontier was only saved from Khosroes by Justinian's agreeing to pay the Persian an annual tribute of thirty thousand pieces of gold.

What great siege occurred at this time? 14. Tell of events in Syria and Italy. What happened at Tagina? How did the Gothic invasion end? 15. What territories were restored to the empire? What foes surrounded it?

16. Justinian erected many magnificent public buildings and churches. The Church of St. Sophia at Constantinople, now a mosque, still stands. But his chief fame lies in the reforms he effected in legislation. He caused to be prepared the famous Digest, or "Pandects," which was a condensation of the Roman law of the first three centuries of the empire; the "Institutes," an elementary work on law; and the "New Code," containing the unrepealed constitutions of the emperors who preceded him. He continued to promulgate other laws, which were compiled in a fourth book under the title of "Novellæ." These volumes constitute the Body of the Roman Law as taught from the sixth century to our own day. The emperor died in 565 after a reign of thirty-eight years. Belisarius died eight months before.

17. **Justinian's Successors.**—Justinian was succeeded by his nephew, Justin II. His reign was a disastrous one. He alienated his generals, especially Narses, and exasperated the enemies who threatened his borders. He lost his reason. The Empress Sophia persuaded him to adopt Tiberius (574), the captain of his guards. Maurice, Tiberius' son-in-law and successor, first defeated and then won over the Persians; but his armies, beaten by the Avari, revolted and proclaimed Phocas, the centurion, emperor (602). Maurice and his sons were put to death, as also the Empress Constantina and her three sons. Eight years later Phocas met the same fate at the hands of Heraclius, and with him closed the third dynasty of the Lower Empire.

SECTION IV. The Lombards in Italy (568-774).

18. **Alboin.**—The Lombards, a Germanic people of Suevic

16. For what is Justinian famed? Give an account of his reforms in legislation. 17. Who succeeded Justinian? Describe Justin's reign. What followed on the death of Justin? With whom did the third dynasty close?

stock established in Pannonia by Justinian, always yearned for the rich lands of Italy, especially after the expulsion of the Ostrogoths. But Alboin, their king, was afraid of Narses. He allied with the Avari, recently over from Asia, to crush the Gepidæ. Both the Lombards and their leader cultivated ferocity in manners as well as in appearance. Alboin's favorite drinking-cup was the skull of his vanquished son-in-law, Cunimond, King of the Gepidæ. An opportunity was afforded them by the unwise recall of Narses, whom Sophia, wife of Justin II., hated. The Lombards at once entered Italy (568).

19. Crossing the Julian Alps, Alboin founded the duchy of Friuli. At Milan he had himself proclaimed king of Italy. Marching southwards, he established the duchies of Spoleto and Beneventum. Other duchies were founded by his chieftains, while the king sat down before Pavia, the siege of which lasted three years. When taken he made it the capital of the Lombard kingdom, which lasted two hundred years (573-774).

20. To the emperors of the East were left Rome, Ravenna, several maritime cities of the north, and some provinces of the south. The exarch of Ravenna was the representative of the emperors in Italy. Alboin was assassinated soon after his triumph at the instance of his queen, the daughter of Cunimond, who herself perished at the hands of the Lombards.

21. **The Lombard Kingdom.**—Cleph was chosen to succeed Alboin. After two years of battle and ravage he was slain (575). Ten years of interregnum followed under the rule of thirty-six leaders or dukes. Then Antharis, Cleph's son, was chosen king. He defeated the Greeks, but died of the plague during an attack on Rhegium. His widow,

18. Who were the Lombards? Describe their characteristics. 19. Tell of Alboin's invasion of Italy and its results. 20. What was left of the ancient Roman empire? 21. What followed on the death of Alboin?

Theodolinda, daughter of a Bavarian prince, married (590) Agilulph, Duke of Turin, who was thereupon elected king by the Lombards. Influenced by the queen and the pope, St. Gregory the Great, Agilulph renounced Arianism and was followed in this by many of his subjects.

CHAPTER VI.

THE CHURCH AND THE BARBARIANS.

SECTION I. The Church and the Early Heresies.

1. The barbarian inroads that overwhelmed the old Roman Empire seemed to destroy every vestige of civilization, and even the Christian Church at first threatened to disappear and go down with the wreck. But it soon showed itself the one thing stable and firm amid the tumbling ruins and general devastation.

2. **Arius and Macedonius.**—Nevertheless, as had been predicted, the Church itself was troubled with heresies. In the fourth century rose up Arius, a deacon of Alexandria, to deny the divinity of our Lord. A large portion of Christendom followed him and Macedonius, Bishop of Constantinople, who assailed the doctrine of the Trinity. Multitudes of Christians were led astray by these false teachers, and much evil was wrought in the Church and in civil society in consequence. The heresies were condemned in the oecumenical councils of Nice and Constantinople.

3. **Pelagius.**—In the fifth century came Pelagius, a British monk, residing in the East. He attacked the doctrine of grace, and his teachings spread rapidly through the West. St. Augustine of Hippo was especially powerful in con-

1. What was the effect of the barbarian invasions? 2. What was the heresy of Arius? Of Macedonius? The effect of the heresies? By what councils were they condemned? 3. What of Pelagius and his great opponent?

futing him, and, condemned by popes and abandoned by princes, Pelagianism soon disappeared.

4. Nestorius and Eutyches.—Nestorianism and Eutychianism, called after the patriarch Nestorius and the abbot Eutyches, next sprang up in Constantinople. Nestorius taught that there are two distinct persons in Jesus Christ, the divine Son of God and the mortal son of Mary; and that, consequently, the Blessed Virgin is not and should not be called Mother of God. Eutyches, on the other hand, confused the divine and human natures of our Lord, which are absolutely distinct. The Œcumenical Council of Ephesus (431) deposed Nestorius, defined the two natures and one person in Jesus Christ, and declared Mary to be the Mother of God. Eutyches' error, condemned by Pope St. Leo, was again anathematized in the Council of Chalcedon in the presence of Marcian and St. Pulcheria (451).

5. Acacius; Fifth Œcumenical Council.—The bishops of Constantinople were jealous of Rome, and this jealousy was fostered by the emperors of the East. The patriarch Acacius, under the pretext of restoring unity, urged the Emperor Zeno to publish an edict in favor of the Eutychians. A schism resulted which for thirty-five years separated Constantinople from Rome. The Emperor Anastasius went beyond this. He tore up the original acts of the Council of Chalcedon and imprisoned or massacred the orthodox priests. Justin I. restored peace, but it was endangered by Justinian. A new Œcumenical council was summoned (553) at Constantinople, in which, despite threats and persecution, Pope Vigilius upheld and confirmed the decisions of the Council of Chalcedon.

6. The Church in the West.—Notwithstanding their ferocity, the barbarians soon showed themselves amenable to

4. What was the heresy of Nestorius? Of Eutyches? Where were the heresies condemned? 5. What schism occurred at this time? What was the decision of Pope Vigilius?

Christian influence. They had noble qualities which only needed the influence of Christ's Gospel and Church to lift them up into the great peoples and nations they became. But this was only brought about by sore trials, sufferings, and martyrdom in the Christian body.

7. Monasticism.—The love of retirement from the world had early drawn away many Christians into the solitudes and deserts of the East, where they lived lives of prayer and extraordinary mortification. Some of them gathered together to live in community, and monasteries were built and rules of life drawn up. The monasteries spread to the large cities, and in those days of continuous violence and change became asylums for the repentant and unfortunate as well as for those who chose to live a retired life. From the East they spread to the West. SS. Eusebius, Hilarion, Ambrose, and Jerome were instrumental in introducing them. St. Martin of Tours left the army to live in solitude and prayer at Ligugé, near Poitiers. After being made bishop he founded the celebrated abbey of Marmoutier, near Tours. Monasteries found early favor in Ireland, and St. Patrick greatly encouraged them.

8. But St. Benedict (480–543) is the great patron of the monks of the West, and his order had a marked influence on the formation of Christendom in the growing European states. His famous house at Subiaco, near Rome, and Monte Cassino, near Naples, were centres of spiritual life and light in the middle ages. The monks taught men how to labor as well as to read and to pray. They at once made material deserts bloom and refreshed multitudes of weary souls with the sweet teaching of Christ. This great order has given to the Church about six thousand bishops, two hundred cardinals, and thirty-five popes.

6. How did the barbarians receive Christianity? 7. Describe the origin and spread of monasticism. 8. Who is the patron of the monks of the West? Describe their work and its results.

9. Letters and Arts.—The East, being more tranquil than the West during this period, had more time and opportunity to indulge in literature and the arts. In the West the single name of Theodoric alone calls up any memory of these refining influences. Boethius, Cassiodorus, and Ennodius flourished in this day; and the palaces of Ravenna, Verona, and Pavia were built. The abbeys, however, were already beginning to send out their light, and the Church was made illustrious by many great saints. In the East were SS. Cyril of Alexandria, Flavian of Constantinople, John Climacus, and the Empress St. Pulcheria. SS. Genevieve, Severinus, Giles, and many other holy monks and nuns were famous in the West.

10. Even the thrones of the barbarians knew SS. Clotilda and Radegonda, SS. Sigismond and Hermenegild, SS. Cloud, Gontran, and Ethelbert. In the episcopate were SS. Augustine and Epiphanius, in Italy; St. Fulgentius, in Africa; St. Leander, in Spain; St. Austin of Canterbury, in England; St. Patrick, in Ireland; and in France St. Avitus of Vienne, St. Sidonius of Clermont, St. Remi of Rheims, St. Gregory of Tours, the first historian of the Franks, and many more. Twenty-five pontiffs succeeded to the chair of Peter from the death of St. Siricius, in 398, to the election of St. Gregory the Great in 590.

SECTION II. Conversion of the Barbarians.

11. Arianism.—Most of the barbarians who came in close contact with the empire were infected with Arianism. They denied the divinity of the Christ in whose name they had been baptized. Many clung obstinately to their error, and these soon disappeared. The Alans and Heruli, once so powerful, were unheard of after the sixth century; the

9. What was the state of literature at this time? Name some of the illustrious writers. 10. Name some of the saints of the period. 11–12. Among whom did Arianism spread?

Vandals lasted but a century ; the reign of the Ostrogoths was over in sixty years ; and the Gepidæ were crushed on the threshold of the empire.

12. Others, like the Burgundians, though slow to yield, yielded at last (517) and were saved. The Suevi were converted in 562 and blended with the Visigoths, who abjured heresy in 587. The Lombards embraced the true faith during the pontificate of St. Gregory the Great.

13. The Franks and Anglo-Saxons.—The Franks and Anglo-Saxons, worshippers of the grim Northern deity, Odin, knew nothing of Christianity when they came in contact with Rome. Clovis brought the Franks over to Christ (496), while in England the faith slowly spread over the land from the landing of St. Augustin in Kent.

14. St. Gregory the Great (590–604).—Pope St. Gregory ascended the papal chair September 3, 590, and his illustrious reign saw the triumph of the Church over the barbarians and over all the empire. In the East his will was respected by the Emperor Maurice and the usurper Phocas ; while Armenia, Persia, Arabia, Ethiopia, and China even, had numbers of Christians. In the West the Lombards alone, though converted, gave trouble ; owing to their barbarous instincts. Spain, France, and the Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy were strongly Christian. Ireland had already become a nucleus of celebrated schools and a nursery of great missionaries. The pope was thus enabled to give much-needed attention to organizing the internal as well as external workings of the Church. He encouraged learning, set in order the liturgy, and adopted the ecclesiastical chant which bears his name.

13. Who made the Franks Christian ? What of England and the faith ? **14.** Describe the state of Christianity during the pontificate of Gregory the Great. How stood Ireland at this time ? Tell of Pope Gregory's reforms.

SECOND EPOCH (604-814).

FROM THE DEATH OF GREGORY THE GREAT TO THE DEATH OF
CHARLEMAGNE—210 YEARS.

DURING this epoch the *formation of Christendom* set in and the Carlovingians and Arabians arose.

CHAPTER I.

THE CARLOVINGIANS.

THE Carlovingians, attaining to the chief power among the Franks, checked at once the Mohammedan and the German barbarian invasion, destroyed the Lombard kingdom, established a new Western Empire, and confirmed the temporal sovereignty of the Holy See.

SECTION I. The "Sluggard" Kings and the Mayors of the Palace (638-752).

1. The Merovingians.—On the death of Dagobert I. (638) his states were divided between his two sons, Sigebert II., to whom fell Austrasia, and Clovis II., whose portion was Neustria and Burgundy. With these princes, who were minors, begins the dynasty of the Merovingians, who were rightly called *faineants*, or "sluggards." The "mayors of the palace" obtained control, and reigned in fact if not in name. These mayors were originally the chief officers of the palace, appointed or removed at the king's will. When Sigebert died (575) the Austrasian nobles claimed the right of choosing a mayor for his son, then a mere child. This claim continued despite the opposition of Queen Brune-

What was the work of the Carlovingians? 1. With whom did the Merovingian dynasty begin? How were the Merovingians styled? What of the mayors of the palace? What occurred on the death of Sigebert?

haut, and, chiefly owing to the influence of Pepin the Elder of Landen, it finally became an office for life (613).

2. The Carolingians.—Pepin laid the foundation of the dynasty called *Carlovingian* from his descendant, Charles the Great. The family possessed great wealth and power, and from the opening of the seventh century exercised a predominating influence in Austrasia. Pepin was a man as pious as he was powerful. Grimoald, his son, succeeded him as mayor of the palace. On the death of Sigebert II. (656) he tried to put his own son on the throne, but the attempt cost him his life.

3. The Usurper Ebroin.—Bathilda, widow of Clovis II., a woman of wisdom and much beloved by her subjects, was regent during the minority of her eldest son, Clotaire III. She was displaced by the ambitious Ebroin, mayor of the palace, whose accession to power brought great evils on the country. This treacherous and tyrannical usurper made himself master of Neustria and Burgundy, and was aiming at Austrasia also when he fell by the hand of an assassin (681). The Austrasians had already chosen as leader Pepin of Heristal, the grandson of Pepin the Elder (679). He was an able warrior and politician. He defeated and slew Bertaire, the son and successor of Ebroin, and thus secured the triumph of Austrasia. He ruled in the name of King Thierry III. over all the Frankish Empire, restored order, and enforced his authority. He subdued the Germans, Bavarians, Frisians, and Saxons, partly by force of arms, partly by zealous Christian missionaries. He ruled for twenty-seven years (687-714).

4. Charles Martel (714-741).—Pepin left to his wife, Gertrude, the care of his grandson, a child of five, who

2. Who founded the Carolingian dynasty? What was the result of Grimoald's ambition? 3. What of Bathilda and Ebroin? What of Pepin of Heristal? Describe his achievements.

was named mayor of the palace. But the Austrasians set his natural son, Charles, at their head, for they needed a warrior. Their choice was wise. He delivered Austrasia from Neustrian control and entered into a league with the powerful Duke Eudes of Aquitaine (719). This done, he compelled the German tributaries to return to their allegiance. He soon became actual master of both Neustria and Austrasia, although allowing the nominal reign of Dagobert III., Chilperic II., Clotaire IV., and Thierry IV. On the death of Thierry (737) he retained supreme power, though never claiming a higher title than Duke of the Franks.

5. Meanwhile the Mussulmans had begun to appear. After ravaging a great part of Asia and Africa they crossed over into Spain, where they destroyed the power of the Visigoths and made themselves masters of the country. Crossing the Pyrenees, they poured into France, defeated Eudes of Aquitaine near Bordeaux, and prepared for the subjugation of the country. Charles and Eudes met them near Poitiers (Oct. 31, 732), and, after a desperate battle, completely routed them. This blow saved Western Europe from the Mussulmans, and to Charles was given the name of *Martel*, or "the hammer." He ruled the state with wisdom and power, favored the Church and missionaries. His reign was made memorable by the labors of St. Boniface in Germany.

6. On his death the kingdom was divided among his sons, Carloman and Pepin. The elder soon retired to the monastery of Monte Cassino (747), leaving Pepin sole ruler of the empire. Pepin resolved on being ruler in name as well as in fact. He had the hearts and the voice of the people. The weak Childeric III. was deposed in an as-

4. Who succeeded Pepin of Heristal? Describe his advance to power. 5. What foe to Christianity now appeared? Describe the Mussulman invasion. What occurred at Poitiers? 6. What followed on the death of Charles Martel?

sembly of the bishops and nobles of the realm acting under the sanction of Pope Zachary. Childeric was shut up in a monastery, and with him ended the Merovingian dynasty after lasting two hundred and sixty-nine years (752).

SECTION II. Pepin the Short (752-768); Charlemagne (768-814).

7. Temporal Sovereignty of the Holy See founded.—

Pepin was consecrated by St. Boniface at Soissons in 752, and in the same year received the submission of Septimania. In the following year he compelled the Saxons to bow to his supremacy. Pope Stephen II. came to seek his aid in behalf of the Holy See, then threatened by Astulph, King of the Lombards. Pepin, again crowned by Pope Stephen, marched against Astulph and defeated him; but no sooner was the conqueror out of Italy than Astulph broke his promises and again threatened Rome. Once more Pepin crossed the Alps (755) and threatened to deprive the Lombard of all his states unless he fulfilled his promises and paid tribute to the Holy See. Pepin himself paid homage to the successor of St. Peter, and secured him in possession of Rome and the exarchate of Ravenna. Thus was established the temporal power of the popes—a power that in Rome had already existed in fact, though subject to the changes of the troublous times.

8. Pepin's Wars against the Saracens and Barbarians.—

After his return to France Pepin crossed the Pyrenees and drove the Saracens out of Septimania (759). He invaded Aquitaine (760), and after an obstinate struggle he vanquished Waïfar, grandson of Eudes of Aquitaine. This victory secured to him the whole territory of ancient Gaul (768). He died the same year, leaving his kingdom to his two sons, Carloman and Karl, or Charles.

7. Tell of the relations of Pepin with the Pope. How was the temporal power of the Papacy established? 8. What of Pepin and the Saracens? How did Pepin acquire Gaul? To whom did he leave his kingdom?

9. Charlemagne (768-814).—To Charles, afterwards Charlemagne, or the Great, fell the inheritance of Carloman, his brother, on the latter's death (771). He had been bred in the camp almost, and was a born warrior. Driving the old Duke Hunald out of Aquitaine, he turned against the Lombards, who, under Desiderius, successor to Astolph and father-in-law to Charlemagne, were besieging Rome. Charles crossed the Alps (773), and in a single campaign subdued all northern Italy. Desiderius, besieged in Pavia, was compelled to surrender his title of king of the Lombards to the conqueror (774), and thus ended the Lombard power. Charlemagne renewed alliance with the Holy See.

10. Charles spent his long reign in constant wars. On his return to France from Italy the Saxons revolted. These were pagans, settled on both banks of the Weser, who hated the Franks for their manners and their faith. They pillaged churches, massacred missionaries, and put all that came in their way to fire and sword. Charlemagne defeated them again and again, but never wholly subdued them. To strike terror into them he one day put to death four thousand five hundred of their chief men (782). He only roused them to greater fury, and a desperate war was waged until Witikind, their chief, consented to receive baptism (785).

11. The Saxons were not the only foes of Charlemagne. He entered Spain and conquered that country from the Saracens as far as the Ebro. On his return his rear-guard was assailed by the Gascons in the pass of Roncevaux, where fell Roland, the famous captain, and a large number of Charlemagne's bravest warriors.

12. After the defeat of Witikind a conspiracy was formed

9. How did Charlemagne attain sole power? Describe his early campaigns. 10. What of Charlemagne and the Saxons? What of Witikind? 11. What occurred at Roncevaux?

of the Greeks, Slavs, and Avari, under the lead of Tassillo, Duke of Bavaria. Charlemagne overcame it, beat each in turn, and deprived Tassillo of his duchy (787). The Greeks were defeated in Italy; the Lombard duchy of Beneventum was compelled to pay tribute; the Slavs were forced to swear fealty; while the Avari, on the Theiss, were almost wholly destroyed (796), and their vast entrenched camp, where the spoils of centuries were heaped up, was taken.

13. Charlemagne Emperor (800).—Charlemagne was now master of all the countries that had formed the Empire of the West. At Rome he was greeted with the title of Emperor, and on Christmas day, 800, was solemnly crowned in the basilica of St. Peter by Pope Leo III. amid the acclamations of the people. He was then in his fifty-eighth year. He continued his conquests from the Ebro to the Oder and from Brittany to southern Italy. He subdued the Slavs and won over or coerced the German tribes to Christianity.

14. He built a fleet to protect his northern coasts against the Northmen, or Normans, whose depredations began to be formidable. He chased the Saracens from Sardinia, Corsica, and the Balearic Isles. He thus became the protector of Christendom from the barbarian tribes of the North and the Mussulman fanatics of the South. His fame spread to all lands, and the renowned caliph, Harun-ar-Rashid, then master of Jerusalem, sent him an embassy laden with rich presents, while the emperors of Constantinople sought his alliance.

15. Government of Charlemagne.—The emperor was as great in peace as he was in war. He fixed upon Aix-la-Chapelle as his residence, that being the centre of his

12. What league was formed against Charlemagne? Tell of Charlemagne's conquests. 13. What empire did Charlemagne rule? By whom was he crowned? 14. What does Christendom owe to Charlemagne?

vast empire. His personal authority was absolute, but he used wise ministers to assist him with their counsel. He was careful about the right government of his people, and sought by many safeguards to protect them from the rapacity of the nobles. He set off the bishops as a check against these latter, and kept himself well informed about the condition of the people, for whose material, religious, and intellectual advancement he was as anxious as a father for that of his family. The laws of Charlemagne, called *capitulars*, were promulgated in general assemblies of the bishops and nobles convened every spring and autumn. Here were discussed all the affairs of Church and state.

16. He called to his court many learned men, chief among whom were Peter of Pisa and the Anglo-Saxon monk Alcuin. He sent out educational missionaries among the people. Numerous schools were established throughout the empire, education being under the care of the clergy. In the *minor* schools were taught grammar, arithmetic, psalmody, and the elements of Christian doctrine; in the *major* schools sacred and profane science—*i.e.*, theology, Holy Scripture, canon law, and the Fathers of the Church, as well as grammar, rhetoric, and the higher branches of education.

17. Charlemagne died at Aix-la-Chapelle in 814, in the seventy-second year of his age. He was unquestionably one of the greatest as well as one of the best and wisest monarchs of the world.

15. Where was Charlemagne's capital? How did he govern? 16. Name some of the scholars at Charlemagne's court. What did Charlemagne do for education? What was taught in the schools? 17. Where did Charlemagne die?

CHAPTER II.

MOHAMMEDANISM—THE ARAB EMPIRE.

MOHAMMED, the founder of a new religion in the East, inspired his followers with a spirit of proselytism and conquest. After overrunning a great part of Asia and Northern Africa they threatened Europe and Christendom until checked by the Franks.

SECTION I. Mohammed (570-632).

1. Rise of Mohammedanism.—While Christianity was pushing its way in the West and through the confines of the ancient Roman Empire, the East remained in comparative darkness, many of the tribes and peoples mingling truthful traditions with local superstitions and false teachings. In 570 was born Mohammed, of the Arabian tribe of Koreish. His family claimed to be descendants of Ismael and held the guardianship of the Kaaba, or sacred temple, where all the tribes of Arabia worshipped. The Kaaba was situated in Hedjaz (Mecca), the chief city of the country and the commercial centre between Syria and Yemen (Arabia Felix).

2. Mohammed's youth was spent in poverty and hardship, tending herds. He married the rich widow of a kinsman, thus gaining wealth and position. He was a man of restless ambition, and, to obtain control over his fellows, claimed a call from heaven as a prophet and leader of his people. To prove his call he lived the life of a recluse in a cave near Mecca, where he professed to have visions and visitations from the Archangel Gabriel. In his retreat he drew up a system which was to become a new law. It imposed on its follower (Mussulman) the blindest submission to the commands of God speaking by the mouth of

-
1. What was the religious condition of the East? Who was Mohammed?
 2. Tell of Mohammed's early life. What claim did he make? What rule did he draw up?

his prophet Mohammed. This was made the primary article of the new faith.

3. Mohammed's recruits were few at the beginning. After three years (614) he assembled all the members of his family and announced his mission. He appointed his cousin Ali, a lad of fourteen, his vizier, or lieutenant. The majority of the guests believed him mad; others accepted his divine call. For eight years he waged war against his enemies and was often on the verge of destruction. At last he had to fly from Mecca, being saved by the self-sacrifice of Ali. He fled to Yatreb, thenceforth called Medina-al-nabi, or the City of the Prophet. This flight (*hegira*) marks the beginning of the hegira or era of the Muslims (622).

4. Mohammed at Medina (622-632); the Holy War.— Mohammed, aided by the inhabitants of Medina, sought to propagate his new system by force of arms. He became a marauder, attacking wherever he saw an opportunity and inspiring courage into his followers by daring and successful exploits which brought him at once booty, recruits, and fame. After various vicissitudes he finally entered Mecca at the head of ten thousand men. He destroyed the idols at the Kaaba, and the inhabitants of the sacred city accepted him as ruler and prophet.

5. He fanned their spirits with dreams of conquest and filled them with enthusiasm for their chief. With Mecca as a centre he soon imposed Islamism on the rest of the Arabians. Hitherto they had followed a spurious version of the true faith. He asked Khosroes, the King of Persia, to join with him, and, on that powerful monarch's scornful refusal, Mohammed condemned his kingdom to be rent. Heraclius, Emperor of the East, and other princes re-

3. How did Mohammed begin his mission? What is meant by *hegira*?
4. What was Mohammed's plan of action? What did he do in Mecca? 5. How were the Arabs attracted to Mohammed?

ceived the prophet's overtures with more show of respect. But the Greeks slew his envoy, and Mohammed declared a holy war against them, which proved a conspicuous failure. He died within two years after (632), leaving only one child, Fatima, wife of Ali. He was acquainted with both Jewish and Christian doctrines, a mixture of which is found in his famous Koran.

6. The Koran.—Mohammed's Koran, or *book*, comprises the religious and civil code of the Mussulmans. It was composed at various times and after long intervals, under the inspiration of Heaven, as he claimed. It was given out during real or pretended frenzies by Mohammed, his disciples taking down the words as they fell from his lips. With some wise rulings and teachings it has much that is vicious, contradictory, and abominable. Among other evil things it sanctified lewdness, and its promises of heavenly reward were but a gratification of animal appetites in man. Men were thus led away by it and embraced it with a sort of religious enthusiasm.

{ **7.** Its religion was fatalism. The unity of God was proclaimed, the trinity denied. Adam, Noe, Abraham, Moses, and Jesus Christ were acknowledged as true prophets; but the divinity of the Saviour was denied, and Mohammed was set up as the last and greatest of the prophets. The existence of angels, the immortality of the soul, and the rewards and punishments of a future life were proclaimed. A number of precepts were enjoined upon the faithful regulating their daily life and religious practices, among others an everlasting and holy war against unbelievers, summed up in the exhortation on sending his people forth to the conquest of the world: "Before you is paradise, behind you the flames of hell."

Where did Mohammed find his doctrine? 6. What is the Koran? How was it composed? What is evil in it? 7. What was the leading doctrine of the Mussulmans? How did they regard the Saviour?

SECTION II. The Elective Caliphate (632-661).

8. Mohammed's Successors.—Mohammed appointed no successor. He charged his father-in-law, Abu-Bekir, to recite the public prayers. Abu-Bekir was accordingly made caliph, or vicar (632-634). He named as his successor Omar (634-644), who added to the title of caliph that of Emir-al-Mumenin (commander of the faithful). Omar was as fanatical as he was brave, and became a great conqueror. He was assassinated by a slave, and Othman, Mohammed's secretary, was chosen to succeed him (644-655). He was an old man of seventy. Revolts broke out. Othman perished and was succeeded by Ali (655-661), whose election was again the signal for anarchy.

9. Mussulman Conquests (632-638).—Abu-Bekir undertook the conquest of Syria. Bosra, the key of the country, was betrayed into the hands of the Arabs, who then advanced on Damascus. An army of seventy thousand men, sent to its defence by Heraclius, was cut in pieces by Kaled, called the Sword of God. He entered Damascus on the day that Omar became caliph and announced his intention of attacking the Greeks and Persians. Sixty thousand Christian Arabs, sent by Heraclius to deliver Syria, were defeated after a terrible conflict, and the Moslems hastened to invest Jerusalem. After a four months' siege the sacred city succumbed and Omar entered in triumph. He compelled the Christians to pay annual tribute, imposed restrictions on the exercise of their religion, and ordered a mosque to be built on the site of Solomon's temple (638). Palestine, Syria, and Mesopotamia were soon in the conqueror's power.

10. Conquest of Egypt (639-640); Persia (632-642).—Amru, the Moslem general, invaded Egypt, whose native

8. Who succeeded Mohammed? Tell of Omar. What followed on the death of Omar? 9. Describe the Mussulman conquest in Syria. How did Jerusalem fall? What conditions were imposed on the Christians?

people had embraced the Eutychian heresy. With their aid the conquest was an easy one. Alexandria fell after a siege of four months, and its famous library was destroyed. The Persian Empire, already rent by civil dissension, fell an easy prey. The victory of Kadesiah (636) opened up the navigation of the Euphrates to the invaders, while that of Nehavend secured to them the conquest of the country. They built the city of Kufa as a stronghold on the Euphrates. Jezdegerd, the Persian king, seeking aid from the Chinese, was slain on the banks of the Oxus (652), and with him ended the famous dynasty of the Sassanides, which had reigned over Persia for four hundred and twenty-six years.

11. End of the Elective Caliphate (661).—Ali, the fourth caliph, was cousin and son-in-law to Mohammed. He was brave and popular, and would have been elected as successor to Mohammed were it not for the enmity of the prophet's widow, Ayesha. She stirred up against him Amru, who had been deprived of the government of Egypt, and Moavia, the governor of Syria. The latter had conquered Rhodes, Cyprus, the Cyclades, and the coast as far as Cilicia. He assumed the title of Commander of the Faithful, marched against Ali, and in one hundred days fought ninety battles with him.

12. Wearied of the combat, the leaders met to decide their quarrel by arbitration, when three fanatics, armed with poisoned daggers, swore to slay the authors of the civil war. Ali fell mortally wounded (661), Moavia received a slight wound, and Amru escaped unhurt. Ali's followers, regarding him as the only legitimate caliph, accept the simple letter of the Koran, and are called Sheeites, or schismatics, by the orthodox. The orthodox, or

10. By whom was Egypt invaded? What famous library was destroyed? What befell Persia? 11. What occurred during the fourth caliphate? 12. How did the quarrels of the rivals end? Who are the Sheeites?

Sunnites (*sunna*, tradition), maintain the legitimacy of the first three caliphs and of oral tradition. Their descendants are the Turks, while the Sheeites are chiefly found in Persia and other countries of Central Asia.

SECTION III. The Ommiades at Damascus (661-750).

13. Hereditary Caliphate.—Moavia^h was proclaimed caliph. He was the son of Abu-Sofian, Mohammed's persecutor. He supplanted the prophet's own children, thus creating enmity against him. He then transferred the caliphate to Syria, selecting Damascus as his capital. The Ommiades, so-called after an ancestor of Moavia^h, made the caliphate hereditary in their family. In less than ninety years Damascus knew fourteen caliphs of the line.

14. Notwithstanding all civil commotions, war was maintained in the East and in the West. In 670 a fleet under Yesid, the caliph's son, appeared before Cyzicus, and soon after before Constantinople. For eight years the struggle for Constantinople was waged, but Moavia^h was finally compelled to sign a truce of thirty years with Constantine Pogonatus and a pledge to pay annual tribute (678). Meanwhile Akba had entered Africa at the head of ten thousand Arabs, founded the city of Kairwan near Carthage, and advanced as far as the Atlantic Ocean. But the victory of Wamba, King of the Visigoths, the resistance of the Berbers, and the arrival of a Greek army forced Akba to return to Egypt. Zabeir, his successor, met with a like ill-fortune. Moavia^h died soon after, and civil contentions put an end to Moslem conquests for twelve years. Persia, Egypt, and Arabia set up caliphs of their own.

15. Conquests in Northern Africa.—Abdul-Melek (685-

Who are the Sunnites and their descendants? 13. Who now was proclaimed caliph? What changes were wrought by Moavia^h? 14. What wars were maintained all this time? Their result? What followed Moavia^h's death?

705), the fifth Ommiade caliph, resumed the holy war. One of his generals took Armenia and the regions of the Caucasus. Turning southward by the Caspian Sea, he seized Samarcand from the Turks, while another army penetrated as far as Hindostan. Hassan, governor of Egypt, was sent into Africa at the head of forty thousand men. There the Greeks had fortified Carthage^e and destroyed Kairwan. Kairwan was rebuilt; Carthage, taken, retaken, and taken again, was finally destroyed (698). The Greeks were driven from Africa.

16. Constantinople was in a state of revolution. Hassan was only checked by the hardy natives, the Berbers, Numidians, and Mauritanians, led by Queen Cahina. Hassan retreated to Egypt; but his successor, Musa, crushed the natives, who had slain their brave queen. He sold three hundred thousand into slavery, incorporated thirty thousand in his army, and the rest were compelled to embrace Islamism or fly to the deserts and mountains, where their descendants are now known as the Tuaregs and Kabyles. These conform to Mohammedanism.

17. **Conquest of Spain (711).**—The city of Ceuta, in Africa, remained to Spain, under Count Julian. The Visigoths of Spain had for king Witiza, who did nothing to stay the advance of Musa, the conqueror of Africa, Sardinia, Corsica, and the Balearic Isles. Witiza was dethroned, his eyes were plucked out, and Roderick was chosen in his place. The fallen monarch's sons, aided by their uncle, the Archbishop of Toledo, and Count Julian, rose against Roderick. Julian delivered Ceuta to Musa and induced him to cross over into Spain. After weighing his chances he returned, and at the head of twenty-five thousand men under Tarik, his lieutenant, who gave

15. By whom was the holy war resumed, and with what results? What befell Carthage? 16. What of Queen Cahina? Tell of Musa's campaign and its result. 17. What happened in Spain? Tell of Count Julian and his action.

his name (Gibel al Tarik) to Gibraltar, he recrossed the straits and disembarked near Algesiras (April 28, 711). Theodemir, governor of Andalusia, was defeated. King Roderick was unprepared, but hastened to collect an army of fifty thousand men, with which he marched against the invader.

18. They met at Xeres.* Roderick, as a mark of confidence, had given command of the right and left wings to Eba and Sisebut, the sons of Witiza. Julian was with the enemy. The battle began on the morning of July 24 and raged for three days, the victory lying in the balance. On the eve of the fourth day Julian secretly entered the Christian camp and so won on the feelings of Eba and Sisebut that they with their troops passed over to the enemy. Weakened and betrayed as he was, Roderick still held out to the Sunday, when he was slain, fighting, by Tarik. The fall of the king decided the day. The conquerors set out for Toledo, the capital, which they seized with all its treasures.

19. Spain, having no longer either army, king, or money, lay at the mercy of the Moslem. Julian paid the penalty of his treachery by being cast into a dungeon, where he died. Tarik was rewarded by the enmity of Musa, who was jealous of his fame and victory. Musa, sending his son Abdul-Aziz in one direction and Tarik in another, himself advanced on Narbonne. He was seized by order of the caliph, brought back to Damascus, publicly scourged, fined, and exiled. Three years later his son's head was sent him—he had been massacred by his subjects as a reward for his mild rule—and the father died of a broken heart.

20. Pelayo. — The Moslem governors of Spain pushed

18. Describe the battle of Xeres. What caused Roderick's defeat? 19. Was all Spain subdued? What was Julian's reward? What befell the Moslem leaders in the campaign?

on their conquests to the Pyrenees. Hence ensued the struggles with Eudes of Aquitaine, Charles Martel, Pepin, and Charlemagne. A band of the Goths held out invincible in the mountain passes of the Asturias under Pelayo. These harassed the Moslems continually, and to put an end to them the emir Alahor sent one hundred and eighty thousand Saracens to storm their stronghold. More than sixty thousand of them found a grave in the waters of the Deva, whither they were cast from the mountain heights by the Christian warriors under their intrepid leader. Pelayo secured his hold on all the northern coast and extended his power as far as Leon. Little by little his successors enlarged the kingdom of the Asturias.

21. Defeat of the Saracens.—The emir Abd-er-Rahman cruelly punished Munusa, one of his subjects, for leaguings with the Duke of Aquitaine. He then invaded southern Gaul with a large army. Eudes, who had suffered several defeats, entrenched himself behind the Dordogne, where he awaited the arrival of Charles Martel. The emir advanced, pillaging, sacking, and massacring. Arles, Toulouse, Bordeaux, Poitiers were taken and burned. Issuing from Poitiers, Abd-er-Rahman found Charles' host drawn up before him, and the battle ensued which saved Western Europe (October, 732).

22. Siege of Constantinople.—The caliph Soliman had previously sent a still more formidable expedition against Constantinople. For thirteen months he invested the city of the Cæsars by sea and land. Notwithstanding all their efforts, they were finally compelled to abandon the siege with a terrible loss in ships, men, and money (717). Thus were the Moslems signally defeated both in the East and in the West.

20. Who held out in the North? How did Pelayo extend his domain? 21. What occurred in Aquitaine? In what famous battle were the Saracens defeated? 22. Relate what occurred at Constantinople.

23. Fall of the Ommiades.—Internal revolution was also at work against the Ommiade caliphs. The descendants of Mohammed continually plotted and strove to regain their inheritance. A new set of claimants, rigorous devotees, now came up in the family of Abbas, uncle of Mohammed. Under the three brothers Ibrahim, Abul-Abbas-Abdallah, and Al-Mansur, the Abbassides raised a revolt which ended in the assumption by Abul-Abbas of the caliphate, the killing of Merwan, the Ommiade caliph, and the slaughter of the Ommiades, one of whom, Abd-er-Rahman, alone escaped (750).

SECTION IV. The Abbassides.

24. Caliphate of Bagdad.—The reign of the new caliph was bloody, and his death was the signal for civil war, in which his brother, Abu-Jaafar, was successful over his uncle. Abu-Jaafar, surnamed “the Victorious,” restored peace in the provinces, built Bagdad, and made that beautiful city the seat of the caliphate. His grandson was the famous Harun-al-Rashid, who sent an embassy to Charlemagne and was renowned for the splendor of his reign both in war and in the arts of peace. To Harun succeeded his three sons, Al-Amin, Al-Mamun, and Matassem, each in turn. With the two last expired the glory of the Abbassides (842). For four centuries the family continued at Bagdad, but only to witness the gradual decay of its power and dismemberment of the empire.

25. Caliphate of Cordova (756).—Abd-er-Rahman, the young Ommiade who had escaped the sword of Abul-Abbas, took refuge in Spain, where he was hailed as sovereign by the friends of his family. He repulsed Yusef, the Abbasside general, and established a caliphate at Cor-

23. Who were the Abbassides, and how did they attain to power? 24. What followed on the death of Abul-Abbas? By whom was peace restored? What of Harun-al-Rashid? How long did the Abbasside family retain its power?

dova, where he built a magnificent mosque. His rule was wise and able, and conciliatory to the Christians. He contended against the kings of the Asturias and the Franks, who had seized Narbonne and all Septimania. Hesham-Abul-Walid, his son and successor, strove hard to recapture Narbonne, but was repulsed by a son of Charlemagne. The Franks took Barcelona also, and all Spain north of the Ebro. This caliphate lasted nearly three centuries.

26. Dismemberment of the Eastern Caliphate.—In 787 Edris, great-grandson of Ali, fled from Arabia to Barbary, or Mauritania, which he conquered. Here the Alide dynasty ruled for two centuries. The son of Edris built Fez, the capital of the Edrisides. Three years after Edris' flight came Ibrahim-Abu-Abdallah, son of Aglab. He settled at Kairwan and extended his dominion over Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli. He also seized upon Sardinia, and treason delivered Sicily to his successors. His descendants, the Aglabades, were dispossessed after a century by the Fatimite caliphs, who were rivals of the Abbassides. They claimed descent from Fatima, daughter of Mohammed. Subduing all northern Africa, they seized Egypt and built Cairo, which they made their capital. Their caliphate soon extended to Arabia, Palestine, and Syria, and to the gates of Bagdad.

27. In the East Taher, Al-Mamun's general, declared himself master of Khorassan and Turkistan (820). But his descendants soon gave way to the Sofarides, who in turn yielded to the Samanides. In Persia the Buïdes ruled and oppressed the caliphs of Bagdad until the Seljuk Turks came. The Tartar sovereigns, called sultans, settled at Gazna, in the valley of the Indus, whence they subjugated the Moslems of Imaus and the rajahs of Hindostan.

25. Who established the Cordova caliphate? What wars did it wage, and how long did it last? 26. Where did the Alide dynasty rule? What of the Fatimite caliphs? 27. What of the Sofarides and Samanides? What of the Tartars?

SECTION V. Arabian Civilization.

28. The beginning of Arabian power was full of turmoil and strife. The desire of the Arabs was to propagate the Koran, whose doctrine of fatalism was opposed to the free impulses of the mind and the development of letters and the arts. The nation was an agglomeration of warrior tribes, who, as their power increased, left to Christians or Jews the administration of civil affairs and the transactions of commerce.

29. As their conquests increased and they came more in contact with other peoples they acquired some of the knowledge and civilization belonging to those peoples. From China came paper, from India the numerals known as *Arabic*, from India and Persia costly textile fabrics, from the Greeks art, from the ancient authors science. Architects from Constantinople built their splendid mosques and houses. The Arabs themselves became skilled as decorators, hence *Arabesque* work. Astronomy and medicine were their favorite sciences. The fatalism of their creed, however, destroyed the life of every pursuit save war, and only a certain eminence was ever reached by them in a few departments of human knowledge and skill.

CHAPTER III.

THE EASTERN EMPIRE IN THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH CENTURIES.

SECTION I. The Heraclian Dynasty and Monothelism.

1. **Disastrous Beginnings.**—Phocas, the murderer of the Emperor Maurice and his family, made himself hateful by his cruelties. Heraclius, son of the exarch of Africa, was

28. What was the chief object of the Arabian power? To whom did the Arabs leave the care of trade and commerce? 29. What came of Arab contact with other peoples? Name their favorite sciences. What of their creed?

invited by Phocas' son-in-law to rid the empire of the tyrant. As his fleet entered the Bosphorus Phocas was brought to him in chains. "Govern better!" was his reply to all his conqueror's reproaches. The empire was menaced at the north by the Avari and southern Slavs. Khosroes II., King of Persia, ravaged Syria, Palestine, Asia Minor, sacking Antioch, Alexandria, and Jerusalem. For eight years Constantinople suffered the severest distress from the Avari. Heraclius was powerless against the enemy, and fear of a popular outbreak alone prevented his transferring the court to Africa.

2. Triumph of Heraclius (620-630).—Roused at last from his lethargy, he permitted the Croatians, Slavonians, Serbians, and other Slavic tribes to settle in the country they still occupy, and so serve as a protection to his north-western frontier. Raising a powerful army from their ranks, he entered Persia. Success crowned his efforts, and after seven years of victories he completely overcame the Persians, destroying their sacred cities and reaching even their capital, Ctesiphon. Here he learned of the violent death of Khosroes at the hands of his son, Siroes. He made an advantageous treaty of peace with Siroes, and restored the true cross, which had been stolen from Jerusalem at the sacking of the city.

3. Meanwhile Constantinople had narrowly escaped falling into the hands of Baian, chief of the Avari, who had come to the aid of a Persian army. Bonosius, the patriarch, so stimulated the citizens that they repulsed the Avari with great loss (626). The Avari lost their ascendancy and were compelled to retire to Pannonia, where they were afterwards exterminated by Charlemagne.

4. Decline of Heraclius.—Heraclius did not maintain his

1. Describe the reign of Phocas and its end. By what foes was the empire threatened? 2. What means did Heraclius adopt to guard the empire? How did he succeed in Persia? 3. What occurred at Constantinople meanwhile?

prestige and fell again into a torpor. He failed to make head against the Mussulmans; his armies were defeated by them, his chief cities captured, and his Eastern provinces lost to Christendom. To add to the evils of the doomed empire heresy again crept in through some Euty-chians who, fearing to deny openly the two natures in Christ, denied his two wills, thus overthrowing the doctrine of the Redemption. The sees of Alexandria, Antioch, and Constantinople were filled by members of their sect. Even Pope Honorius was deceived by them, though warned when too late by St. Sophronius, the patriarch of Jerusalem. Heraclius fell into the snare and published an edict in favor of the heresy, which Pope John IV. afterwards compelled him to disavow.

5. Family of Heraclius.—Heraclius died in March, 641. In the following June his tomb was profaned by his eldest son, Constantine III. In August Heracleonas, his youngest son, had his nose cut off and was deposed to make room for Constans II., his nephew. Constans, unable to withstand the Mussulmans, upheld the Monothelites and published an edict forbidding all religious discussion. He banished the pope, St. Martin, from Rome, and murdered his own brother. He set sail for Italy under a pretence of reconstructing the empire, and, after seven years of evil government there, was assassinated at Syracuse (668).

6. His son, Constantine IV. (Pogonatus, or “the Bearded”), put down a revolt, quelled a mutiny of his soldiers, and for six years successfully defended his capital against the Arabs. He caused the Monothelite heresy to be condemned by the Sixth Œcumenical Council of Constantinople (680). His son, Justinian II., did not follow the good example of his father. After a ten years’ reign his nose

4. Did Heraclius follow up his victories? What heresy crept in? The result?

5. What ensued on the death of Heraclius? Describe the reign of Constans II.

6. Who succeeded Constans? Describe the reign of Constantine IV.

was cut off and he was banished. Aided by Tarbelis, King of the Bulgarians, he returned to Constantinople, mutilated and slew his two competitors, and at last was himself beheaded (711). He is responsible for the abolition of celibacy in the East by a council convoked by him.

SECTION II. The Iconoclastic Isaurian Emperors.

7. Three princes succeeded in rapid turn to the throne. One of them, Anastasius II., was a zealous Christian and an able ruler. He raised an expedition against the Arabs (715), but the sailors mutinied and proclaimed Theodosius emperor. Anastasius was defeated and retired to a monastery. Theodosius ascended the throne, but was driven from it by Leo, the general of Anastasius, who seized it for himself. Leo III., surnamed the Isaurian, proved an able prince so far as guarding his empire went, but at home he was the cause of grave disorders.

8. **Iconoclastic Edict (726).**—Leo issued an edict against the images of Christ, the Blessed Virgin, and the saints, forbidding any honor to be paid to them and commanding their removal from churches and private houses; hence the title “iconoclast,” or image-breaker. St. Germanus, patriarch of Constantinople, protested against the edict, and was forced to abdicate. There was a general resistance to the law, and the result was maltreatment, burning, and exile on all sides. St. John Damascen, a subject and secretary of an Omniade caliph, wrote a defence of the images. Leo cut off the hand with which it was written. Pope St. Gregory II. wrote a letter of expostulation. He was stripped of his possessions, and only the resistance offered by the Romans and other Italians saved him from banishment.

What of Justinian II.? What did he abolish? 7. What occurred on the death of Justinian? What of Leo the Isaurian? 8. What edict did he issue? What does iconoclast mean? How did Leo treat opposition to the decree?

9. Leo was succeeded by his son, Constantine V., whose reign was one series of wars abroad and disturbances at home. He continued to make war on the images. He even caused painting to be condemned and St. John Damascen and all faithful Christians to be anathematized. He died consumed by ulcers; his bones were exhumed and burned in the place of public execution. His successor, Leo IV., also favored the heresy, but less violently. Constantine VI. was only ten years old on being called to the throne. His mother, Irene, restored peace to the Church and organized several successful expeditions against the Arabs. An œcumenical council, assembled at Nice, re-established the veneration of sacred images (787).

10. As soon as Constantine came of age he imprisoned his mother and mutilated his four uncles, who conspired against him. Irene, escaping, regained her power, had her son's eyes put out, and then proceeded to reign alone. She was in turn dethroned by Nicephorus, who revived all the heresies. He was defeated by the Bulgarians and his skull converted into a drinking-cup by Crum, their king. Peace was restored by Michael, son-in-law of Nicephorus. But he was betrayed to the Bulgarians by Leo the Armenian, who succeeded him (813), and the iconoclastic persecution was furiously renewed.

CHAPTER IV.

THE CHURCH AND CHRISTIAN CIVILIZATION.

SECTION I. Influence of the Pope and the Bishops.

1. Through all this turmoil East and West the Church, especially in the person of her supreme head, the pope, was

9. How did Constantine V. behave? What befell him? By whom was peace restored? What council occurred during this reign? 10. What course did Constantine pursue on attaining his majority? Outline what followed.

winning its way to authority and love among the people. Its temporal independence freed it from the fatal attachment of Greek politics. It became strong enough to treat with kings, while it gained the respect of the new and vigorous races. The Romans were gradually estranged from Constantinople and the falling empire, and looked to their own soil and people, where the pope was now the chief figure, for protection.

2. The princes of the West naturally regarded the popes as the chiefs of Christendom. Hence they came in time to be consecrated, advised, and warned by them, and often helped them and the missionaries in turn. Both religion and national independence, as well as general culture and civilization, derived great benefits from this alliance between the growing Christian powers and the heads of the Church.

3. With the popes grew the bishops, many of whom became important officers in the state as well as in the Church, and wise councillors in public affairs. This also led to some abuse, but in the beginning it was highly beneficial, both to Church and state. Charles Martel, for instance, bestowed benefices and ecclesiastical titles on some of his warriors in reward for their services, but this was put a stop to by Charlemagne.

SECTION II. The Monks of the West.

4. While Mohammedanism pushed back Christianity in the south of Europe, it only drove it north and west. Scotland was converted by Irish monks, chief among whom was St. Columba, who established a famous monastery at Iona, in the Hebrides, which soon became a renowned seat of learning. Luxeuil was founded by St. Columbanus near

1. Describe the progress of the Church at this period. Who became the chief figure in Rome? 2. What came of the alliance between the princes and the popes? 3. What of the bishops? 4. Tell of St. Columba and his work.

Besangon, in France. He then passed into Germany to preach the Gospel to the tribes in the vicinity, and visited Italy, where he labored many years. St. Gall, a disciple of his, penetrated to the Swiss mountains and founded a monastery, which to this day gives its name to a flourishing canton. These were Irish monks all. Another, St. Kilian, preached in Bavaria and Franconia, and suffered martyrdom for the faith. St. Albert, or Adalbert, left his see of Cashel, and, with St. Erhard, labored in Ratisbon. Anglo-Saxon monks followed in their wake, and Frankish nobles left camp and court to join the noble army of missionaries.

5. The Franks, SS. Emmeran and Corbinian, completed the conversion of Bavaria and Franconia. SS. Eloi, Amand, and Vulfran converted Belgium and preached in Friesland. Friesland was long stubborn, but at last yielded to the zeal of the Anglo-Saxon monks Wilfrid, Willibrord, and Winfrid. Willibrord, who afterwards baptized Pepin the Short, founded the bishopric of Utrecht, and by purchasing thirty young Danish slaves, of whom he made missionaries, prepared the way for the conversion of Denmark. Winfrid, better known as St. Boniface, spent forty years in founding schools, churches, and bishoprics in Friesland, Hesse, Thuringia, and Saxony. He consecrated Pepin the Short, and was afterwards martyred by the Saxons. The Abbey of Fulda was one of his foundations. By subduing the Saxons Charlemagne opened the road for the conversion of all Germany as well as of Scandinavia and the Slavonic races.

6. Monasteries began to abound. They were the great schools of the people, where labor as well as literature was honored and taught, where the learned found a retreat,

Tell of the work of other Irish missionaries. 5. Who converted Bavaria and Franconia? Describe the missionary work in the North. Tell of the work of St. Winfrid, and of Charlemagne.

the poor a home, and the unfortunate a refuge in days of constant war and turmoil.

7. In the East the seventh century produced little more than the writings of St. Sophronius, of Jerusalem, and of the Abbot St. Maximus, of Constantinople, against the Monothelites. The violence of the iconoclasts led to a reaction, and Christian apologists multiplied. In the West, in the same century, Spain and France produced SS. Isidore, Ildefonsus, Eloi, and Ouen, all famous for their writings. Then there was a lapse of nearly a century in those countries: in Spain owing to the Mohammedan invasion, and in France to the decline of the Merovingian kings, as well as to the possession of nearly all the episcopal sees by Charles Martel's unlettered warriors. From the death of Leo II. to Gregory II. (683-715) Italy and Rome suffered from the common darkness. On the other hand, England was rich in learned men and schools; and the names of the Greek monk Theodore, Archbishop of Canterbury, Abbot Adrian, his friend, Benedict Biscop, Egbert of York, and Alcuin illustrate the time and the annals of the Church.

8. There are many other illustrious ecclesiastics called up by the mention of Charlemagne and Alcuin whose lives were devoted to learning and virtue, and who founded thousands of schools throughout the vast empire of the Franks. Thus the havoc wrought in the decaying and vicious Eastern Empire was more than counterbalanced by the rise and spread of truth and virtue among the sturdier races of the north and of the west.

6. What of the monasteries and their influence on the people? 7. Mention some great writers of the seventh century. What occasioned the decline in Spain and France? What of England? 8. How was the Eastern decline offset?

THIRD EPOCH (814-1073),

FROM THE DEATH OF CHARLEMAGNE TO THE ACCESSION OF ST.
GREGORY VII.—259 YEARS.

THE third epoch embraces the formation of feudal Europe, before which Charlemagne's empire disappears. A new invasion of barbarians comes down from the north. The German kings, as heirs of Charlemagne, obtain preponderance in Europe. The Mussulmans recede before the Spanish Christians, but overwhelm the Greeks, who separate from the Catholic centre. The Slavs and Scandinavians are converted to Christianity.

CHAPTER I.

THE CARLOVINGIAN EMPIRE AND THE FEUDAL SYSTEM.

THE Carlovingian empire is broken up first into three, after into seven kingdoms, which, under the feudal system, undergo a further dismemberment.

SECTION I. The two Dismemberments of the Carlovingian Empire (843 and 888).

1. **Louis le Debonnaire (814-840).**—With Charlemagne disappeared the mighty empire he created. It fell to pieces under his weak successors, who could not make a stand against the inroads of the barbarians or the rivalries of their own nobles. Moreover, the elements of the empire were diverse as to race, language, laws, customs, and interests. Revolts at once broke out under Louis le Débonnaire, Charlemagne's son and successor. To maintain the empire Louis divided it among his three sons in the assembly of Aix-la-Chapelle (817). To Lothaire,

What does the third epoch embrace? What monarchs obtained preponderance in Europe? What of the Mussulmans, the Slavs and Scandinavians? 1. What became of Charlemagne's empire? By whom and how was the empire divided?

the eldest, fell Italy with the expectation of the imperial crown; to Pepin and Louis, Aquitaine and Bavaria. Bernard, grandson of Charlemagne and already king of Italy, protested against this division; but his eyes were put out by Louis, and he died of his sufferings. In remorse the emperor imposed a public penance on himself.

2. Later on, yielding to the ambition of his second wife, Judith of Bavaria, Louis favored her son, Charles the Bald, to the injury of his brothers. They flew to arms and shut their father in a monastery (830). Quarrelling among themselves, the emperor again ascended the throne; but by bestowing Aquitaine on Charles he provoked another rebellion. His army fell from him, and he was deposed and publicly degraded (833). The disagreement of the brothers and their shameful treatment of the emperor aroused public indignation. Louis was restored to the throne, but his favoritism caused another revolt, during which he died. He it was who confirmed the little republic of Andorra in the Pyrenees, founded by Charlemagne (790), and existing to this day.

3. **First Dismemberment.**—The rivalries of the three sons of Louis led to the first dismemberment of the empire of Charlemagne. Lothaire assumed the title of emperor. Aided by his nephew, Pepin of Aquitaine, he aimed at the mastery of the whole empire. Charles and Louis united their forces against him. They defeated Lothaire at Fontanet, near Auxerre (841). Peace was restored at Verdun, where the three brothers met and agreed to divide their patrimony (843). Lothaire was acknowledged as emperor, and received, with Italy, all the territory bounded on the east by the Alps and

What befell Bernard, King of Italy. 2. How did his sons treat Louis? Describe the succession of events up to Louis' death. What republic did Louis confirm? 3. What of the rivalries of Louis' sons? To what did they agree?

the Rhine, and on the west by the Rhone, Saône, Meuse, and Scheldt. Charles received western Gaul, and Louis, Germany. This was the beginning of the Italian, French, and German nations.

4. Charles the Bald (840-877) and his Successors.—Charles never possessed all western Gaul. Nomenoe assumed the title of king of Brittany and maintained it against Charles, and transmitted it to his sons with all the country as far as the Mayenne. Pepin II., King of Aquitaine, was abandoned by his subjects for having made an alliance with the Saracens and Normans. His patrimony rested in the hands of the Count of Toulouse and other powerful and independent nobles. The Normans ravaged the coast and advanced to Paris. Charles bought them off, only to induce others to follow. Moreover, he was constantly quarrelling with his neighbors. In 869 he seized Lotharingia, or Lorraine—that portion of Lothaire II.'s kingdom which lay between the Saône and the Scheldt, the Jura and the Rhine. When Louis II., brother of Lothaire II., died (875), Charles obtained the title of emperor, but failed to dispossess the three sons of his brother, Louis the German (876). Called into Italy to meet the Saracens, he issued the edict of Kiersy-sur-Oise (877), by which the tenure of countries was declared hereditary. This was the foundation of the feudal system in France. Charles was finally betrayed, and perished in a hut at the foot of Mont Cenis.

5. He was succeeded by his son, Louis II., the Stammerer. Weaker even than his father, he soon abandoned the throne to his two sons, Louis III. and Carloman. They were able princes, but failed to oust Boson, who had been proclaimed king of Provence (879). At their death there

4. Who ruled in Brittany? What happened in Aquitaine? What of the Normans? What other quarrels had Charles? What was the edict of Kiersy-sur-Oise? 5. What happened on the death of Charles?

remained Charles the Simple, their brother, a minor, and Charles of Suabia, a son of Louis the German, as the legitimate representatives of the dynasty. The Suabian was chosen emperor (884), but he was not able enough to hold his inheritance. The Normans besieged Paris (886). After a gallant defence of eleven months Charles appeared at the head of a formidable army, only to buy the Normans off with permission to them to ravage Burgundy.

6. Dismemberment into Seven Kingdoms (888).—The incompetent emperor was deposed at the diet of Tribur (887), and died in the following year. The dissolving empire was finally divided into seven kingdoms: 1, the kingdom of Germany, under Arnulf of Carinthia, a natural son of Carloman of Bavaria, and nephew of Charles of Suabia; 2, the kingdom of France, under Eudes, Duke of France and Count of Paris; 3, the kingdom of Italy, under Guy, Duke of Spoleto, who had for rival Berenger, Duke of Friuli; 4, the kingdom of Provence, or Cis-Juran Burgundy, under Louis the Blind, son of Boson; 5, the kingdom of Trans-Juran Burgundy, under Rudolph Welf; 6, Lorraine, under Zwentibald, a natural son of Arnulf; 7, Navarre, under Fortunus the Monk. These were in turn divided into a number of semi-independent fiefs under nobles powerful enough to maintain them.

SECTION II. Feudalism in Europe.

7. The barbarian chiefs who settled in the Roman Empire rewarded their chief warriors by dividing among them portions of the conquered territory as *freeholds* exempt from dues. These lands were first called *benefices*, afterwards *fiefs*, or *fees*. The grants were revocable at will.

How did Charles of Suabia come to the crown? What famous siege occurred and how did it end? 6. What befell Charles? How was the empire divided? 7. What were freeholds, benefices, and fiefs, and what did they entail?

They imposed military service on the holder, and certain dues in money or in kind.

8. In the loose state of society prevailing the more powerful of the holders naturally strove to free themselves from all obligations and become independent. The troubles of the times and the weakness of Charlemagne's descendants favored their pretensions. Charles the Bald yielded to them partially in the edict of Mersen (847), and wholly by the edict of Kiersy-sur-Oise (877). By the first edict freeholders, who up to then had been subject directly to the crown, were allowed to choose protectors to defend them from the dangers that threatened. So they put themselves under the protection of the most powerful lords by offering these their services in return.

9. Thus most of the freeholds became actual *fiefs* held under obligations of military service. By the second edict Charles, to gain the aid of the nobles, granted them hereditary ownership not only of the fiefs, but also of the government of them and public functions, which up to that time were only temporary commissions. The great nobles thus became independent sovereigns on their own estates, with liberty to make war, administer justice, coin money, levy taxes, etc. Even the domains of the Church were for the most part transformed into fiefs.

10. In the tenth century France had seven leading fiefs, whose holders were known as grand feudatories, peers, or immediate vassals of the king. These were the duchies of France, Normandy, Burgundy, and Aquitaine, and the counties of Toulouse, Flanders, and Vermandois. They each comprised a great number of secondary fiefs, whose holders were known as rear vassals, or vavassors. When Eudes, the Duke of France, became king in 888, there only

8. How did feudalism originate? 9. What concessions did Charles the Bald make to the nobles, and with what result? 10. Name the fiefs in France during the tenth century. What were vavassors?

remained six lay peers. To these were later added six ecclesiastical peers.

11. After the ninth and tenth centuries feudalism was carried by the victorious Normans into southern Italy and England, and by the Crusaders into the East. Germany became feudal with France. Her chief peers were the dukes of Saxony, Franconia, Suabia, Bavaria, Lorraine, the county palatine, and the margraves of Brandenburg, Misnia, and Carinthia. In Italy were the duchies of Friuli and Spoleto, the marquisates of Ivrea, Tuscany, and Camerino, and the county of Tusculum. In Spain, Portugal, and the northern states of Europe feudalism was never wholly developed.

SECTION III. The last Carlovingians (888-987) and the first three Capetian Kings (987-1060).

12. **Last of the Carlovingians.**—Eudes, the gallant defender of Paris against the Normans, was chosen king after the deposition of Charles. Strong and brave as he was, the party of Charles the Simple, son of Louis the Stammerer, was too powerful to subdue; so Eudes ceded to him half the kingdom (896). By the death of Eudes Charles became sole king, and, unable to combat the Normans, he ceded to Rollo, their chief (911), the part of Neustria called, after them, Normandy. The weak-minded Charles became the victim of his ministers, and Robert, Duke of France, the brother of Eudes, assumed the title of king, but was slain in battle at Soissons. His son, Hugh the Great, assumed command and totally routed the royal forces (923). Hugh threw the crown to his brother-in-law, Raoul, Duke of Burgundy, whose reign

11. By whom was feudalism spread abroad, and in what nations? 12. Who succeeded Charles? What action did Eudes take? What followed on Eudes' death? What of Normandy? Who defeated Charles?

was divided between warring against the Hungarians or the rebels at home (923-936).

13. Charles the Simple was made prisoner by the Count of Vermandois, and died in the castle of Péronne (929). His son, a fugitive to England, was recalled and proclaimed king under the title of Louis IV. (936-954). Hugh the Great had brought him to the throne. Louis nevertheless attempted the conquest of Vermandois and Normandy, but was defeated and taken prisoner by Hugh, who deprived him of the county of Laon. A solemn sentence of excommunication alone induced Hugh to restore to the monarch what was left him of his domain.

14. Louis was succeeded by his son Lothaire (954-986), whom Hugh supported. Hugh, dying, left his inheritance to his son, Hugh Capet. King Lothaire gained the allegiance of the lords and marched against Lorraine, long a disputed territory between France and Germany. He nearly surprised the emperor, Otho II., at Aix-la-Chapelle. Then Otho, eluding him, advanced to the heights of Montmartre, commanding Paris, and struck terror into the city (980). Peace was made, and Lothaire set to work to restore the royal authority at home, when he died. His only son, Louis V., succeeded him (986-987), but died after a few months' reign, being the last of the Carolingian dynasty, which lasted two hundred and thirty-five years.

15. The Capetians; Hugh Capet (987-996).—In the assembly at Senlis Hugh Capet, Duke of France, was chosen to succeed Louis V. Louis' uncle, Charles of Lorraine, claimed the right of succession, but was imprisoned and ended his days in the castle of Orleans. The great nobles were harder to subdue. Hugh was only allowed full au-

13. What became of Charles the Simple and his son? 14. To whom did Hugh the Great leave his inheritance? Describe the struggle between Lothaire and Otho. In whom did the Carolingian dynasty end? 15. Who succeeded?

thority in his own domain, the dukedom of France. By renouncing his authority over ecclesiastical benefices he gained the support of the clergy. He had his son Robert crowned during his lifetime, and, his successors following this example, the hereditary transmission of the crown to the eldest son of the monarch became sanctioned by custom and finally a fundamental law of the state.

16. Robert (996-1031) and Henry I. (1031-1060).—Robert's reign was disturbed by turmoils in his own family, which he quelled. At the death of his uncle Henry he took possession of the duchy of Burgundy. Henry I., Robert's son, began his reign by quelling a revolt of his brother Robert, which was instigated by the ambitious queen-mother, Constance. He pardoned his brother and gave him Burgundy as an inheritance. France was desolated by a famine during the first three years of his reign. The nobles were ever up in arms against each other, and the people suffered terribly from the double scourge. To abate this civil strife the Truce of God was, at the Church's instigation, established throughout Europe (1041). It was a solemn compact in the name of God to observe peace during Advent, Lent, the octave of the principal feasts, and from every Wednesday evening to the following Monday morning. Clerks and laymen everywhere formed confraternities, binding themselves by oath to fight to death for the observance of the Truce of God. Much bloodshed and strife was thus prevented. Henry, the year before his death, had Philip I., his eldest son, solemnly crowned at Rheims.

What of Hugh Capet and the clergy? What important custom did he institute? 16. What great acquisition did Robert make? What followed on the death of Robert? What was the Truce of God

CHAPTER II.

THE INVASIONS OF THE NINTH AND TENTH CENTURIES.

AT the fall of the Carlovingian Empire there were new invasions: on the south the Arabs, on the east the Hungarians, and on the north and west the Normans.

SECTION I. Invasions of the Saracens and Hungarians.

1. The Saracens, holding Spain and the African coasts, easily conquered Corsica, Sardinia, and the other Mediterranean islands, which served them as so many centres whence to carry on their depredations. From Sicily they invaded southern Italy, which, weakened by the dissensions of the Greeks and Lombards, fell almost entirely into their hands. Pope Leo IV. set chains across the Tiber to interrupt its navigation, and walled in the Vatican quarter, thence called the Leonine City (855). His heroism found a strong ally in the Emperor Louis II., son of Lothaire. All Italians were summoned to the defence of their country, and the infidels, after a series of reverses, were driven to their entrenched camp on the Garigliano (916), losing all their conquests on the Peninsula.

2. In France they had gained possession of the mouths of the Rhone (841). After sacking Arles and Marseilles they took up a strong position at Fraxinet, which they made their base of operations against Provence, Dauphiny, and the neighboring territories.

3. With the passes of the Alps in their hands they cut off communication between France and Italy. They seized the abbot of Cluny, and claimed as a ransom all the trea-

What invasions occurred during the ninth and tenth centuries? 1. Describe the Saracen conquests in Europe. How came the Leonine City? What ally had the pope? 2. Describe the Saracen conquests in France.

tures of his great monastery. Thereupon the nobles of the country, uniting under William, Viscount of Marseilles, succeeded in clearing Fraxinet and the Provençal coasts of Saracens (972).

4. The Hungarians.—Towards the close of the ninth century the Hungarians, or Magyars, came down from the Ural and settled, under Arpad, their chief, in the valley between the Theiss and the Danube. They blended with the few Avari, people of the same race, residing there. Arnulf of Germany asked their aid against the Moravians, whom they destroyed in a single campaign. Flushed with success, they crossed the Alps into Italy, which, owing to local rivalries, fell an easy prey to them. Ascending the Danube soon after, they turned into France, committing horrible excesses wherever they passed. While making for Cordova to pillage the city of the caliphs they were met and beaten in Aquitaine by Raymond, the gallant Count of Toulouse (925). Germany suffered still more terribly than France from them, and their irruptions were only stopped by their overwhelming defeat near Augsburg (955) by Otho I.

5. Christianity alone succeeded in taming them and changing their ferocious natures. Vaïc, their chief, being baptized, helped to convert his people. In baptism he took the name of Stephen. As a testimony to his great services Pope Sylvester II. sent him a crown (1000) with the title of “apostolic king,” which the emperors of Austria still retain. Stephen (997-1033) not only spread Christianity among his people but organized the government. He established schools, churches, bishoprics. He formed a legislative body and introduced some of the feudal customs. He conquered Transylvania and subdued the Bulgarians and Slavs.

3. What of the abbot of Cluny? 4. Tell of the Hungarians. Describe their invasions. 5. How were the Hungarians converted? Tell of the work of King Stephen.

SECTION II. The Norman Invasions.

6. The Normans.—The Normans were pirates inhabiting the coasts of Scandinavia—that is, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway; a ferocious and enterprising people, who made war and freebooting the chief business of life. They set out in their barks to seek booty or settle in new homes among richer and more civilized peoples. Rurik, one of their chiefs, called in to aid the inhabitants of Novgorod, made himself master of the place (862). He is regarded as the real founder of the Russian monarchy. His son Igor extended his dominion from the Baltic to the North Sea.

7. Vladimir the Great.—The Russians, under Vladimir the Great, Igor's grandson, threatened Constantinople. To save the city Anna, sister of the emperors Basil and Constantine, was given him in marriage, on condition that he would become a Christian. He destroyed his idols and with a great number of his followers received baptism (988). Vladimir became a great and humane sovereign. His son, Jaroslav (or Yaroslaf) I., drew up a code of wise laws called "Russian Truths." The Russians were thenceforth divided into three classes: the boyards or nobles, the commoners, and the serfs. Jaroslav's reign was a happy and prosperous one, and he placed, by marriage, three daughters on the thrones of France, Hungary, and Norway.

8. Pushing northwards, the Normans seized the Faroe Isles and Iceland, and discovered Greenland, Newfoundland, and, according to some, North America. They invaded Ireland and made various settlements there, and landed in England about 830, just after Egbert, King of Wessex, had extended his sway over the whole Anglo-Saxon Heptarchy (827). Egbert, having been reared in the court and camp of

6. Who were the Normans? What of Rurik and his son? 7. What of Vladimir the Great? What were the "Russian Truths"? 8. Tell of the Norman discoveries. Did they reach England and Ireland?

Charlemagne, kept the invaders back, but after his death they made constant inroads, and finally effected a settlement in the north in the three kingdoms of the Angles.

9. The Northmen in England.—Alfred the Great, Egbert's grandson, ascended the throne at the age of twenty-two. His kingdom was ransacked by the Northmen, then called Danes, as well as torn by dissensions. He succeeded, however, in gradually bringing his forces together, expelling the Danes, and restoring order (878). He erected fortresses and built the first English fleet to protect the coasts. He framed a wise system of laws, encouraged learning and piety, and maintained justice. He is credited with founding the University of Oxford.

10. Alfred was succeeded by his son, Edward I., surnamed the Elder—an able prince, who drove the Danes still further back (900-924). His son Athelstan (924-940) completed the conquest of the Danish territory by defeating Anlaf at Brunanburgh. The Welsh and Scots, allies of Anlaf, submitted to Athelstan, who succeeded in uniting all the kingdoms of the Heptarchy under his sway. The three daughters of this powerful monarch wedded Otho I., Charles the Simple, and Hugh the Great, Duke of France. The reign of his nephew Edgar was equally glorious, and guided by the zeal and wisdom of St. Dunstan, Archbishop of Canterbury, who effected great reforms among the clergy. Their discipline and habits had become relaxed under the constant disturbances of the times.

11. Edgar's son, Ethelred II., had none of the vigor of his brothers. Instead of beating he attempted to buy off the Danes. For this purpose a tax called *danegelt* was levied on the English and became a great burden. Ethel-

9. Who expelled the Danes from England? What other work did Alfred do?
10. What followed on Alfred's death? What of Athelstan's daughters? Describe the reign of Edgar. 11. What was Ethelred's policy?

red was treacherous as well as cowardly, and on St. Brice's day (November 13, 1002) ordered a massacre of the Danes through all the kingdom. Not even the sister of Sweyn, King of Denmark, was spared, Christian though she was.

12. Conquest of England by Sweyn and Canute.—Sweyn, at the head of a large army, landed in England and ravaged the country. Ethelred was compelled to fly to Normandy (1013). After Sweyn's departure Ethelred was recalled, and at his death (1016) was succeeded by his eldest son, Edmund Ironside. Sweyn had achieved the conquest of the country, and left it as part of his inheritance to Canute, his son and successor. Edmund compelled Canute to cede half the Hephtharchy; but his death left the whole to Canute (1017).

13. Canute the Great, King of England (1017-1035).—Canute, after ascending the English throne, was converted to the Christian faith, and became one of the greatest and wisest rulers that England had yet known. To end discord he married Emma, the widow of Edmund. He restored the ancient laws and suppressed the privileges of the Danes. He favored learning and religion, and was beloved by the people. At one time he united in his own person the crowns of England, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. He made a pilgrimage to Rome, and addressed a famous letter to his people from the shrine of the apostles. He established the payment of Peter's pence in his dominions—a tax of a farthing on every hearth for the benefit of the Holy See. His two sons, Harold (1035-1040) and Harthacanute (1038-1042), succeeded, but were unfit to reign. The Danes returned, and Edward, son of Ethelred, was recalled from his exile in Normandy.

14. The Normans in the Carolingian Empire.—In the beginning of the ninth century the Normans began to

12. Who now invaded England? What followed on Sweyn's departure? 13. What of Canute? Whom did he marry? What was his policy? What memorable pilgrimage did he make? What followed on his death?

descend on the Carlovingian coasts. Their favorite posts were islands in the mouths of rivers, whence they could sail inwards for booty or escape to sea if necessary. The weakness of Louis le Débonnaire and his sons exposed France to their depredations. They suffered a great defeat from King Arnulf at Louvain (891). In the west of France their stay was more prolonged and calamitous. They sacked some of the principal cities, and Ragnar Lodbrog, one of their chiefs, ascended the Seine to Paris (845). He sacked the city before the eyes of Charles the Bald, who bought the barbarian off.

15. Ravage succeeded to ravage, until all France groaned under the Normans. They finally settled in the country. Hasting, the most redoubtable of their chiefs, was baptized, and was given the county of Chartres by Charles the Bald. He then closed the Loire against his countrymen. After Eudes' brave defence of Paris (886) the pirates no longer dared ascend the Seine so far. Rollo, however, one of their chiefs, seized Rouen and held it. Charles won him over at St. Clair-sur-Epte (911) by giving him his daughter, Gisela, in marriage, with part of Neustria for dower, on condition that he would pay homage and be baptized with his followers. Rollo consented, and was baptized under the name of Robert. The Normans soon changed their ways, and, under wise laws, became as strong Christians as they had been fierce pagans. Normandy soon grew to be the best-ordered and most prosperous province in France.

16. **Conquests of the French Normans.**—Forty Norman pilgrims, returning from the Holy Land, happened to be in Salerno when the Saracens came to levy the annual tax on its inhabitants. Indignant at such a thing, they

14. Tell of the Norman invasion of France. 15. What course did they adopt? What of Hasting? What of Rollo? How were the French Normans changed into Christians?

fell on the Saracens and slew them (1016). This incident and the richness of the place drew many Normans to the south of Italy. The Duke of Salerno bestowed the county of Aversa on one of their chiefs (1030). This was a further inducement to the Normans to enter in and take possession, as was their custom.

17. Tancred of Hauteville, reduced in fortunes and having twelve sons, sent three of them to southern Italy. One, called William the Iron Arm, entered the Greek service and conquered the Saracens in Sicily. As pay was not forthcoming, William, at the head of twelve hundred Normans, attacked an army of sixty thousand men and defeated them, near Canne (1042). He then conquered Apulia, and, dying soon after, left his conquests to his hardy brothers, among them the famous Robert Guiscard.

18. Pope Leo IX., having entered into alliance with the emperors of Germany and the East, advanced to Civitella (1053) against the Normans. His troops were defeated and he fell into the enemy's hands. They fell at his feet, begged his blessing, and did him homage for all the fiefs conquered or to be conquered in southern Italy. The pope acquiesced, and from captive was changed into suzerain of the Normans. Robert Guiscard, one of the most famous captains of his time, expelled the Greeks from Calabria, and was given the title of Duke of Apulia and Calabria (1059) by Pope Nicholas II., as also Duke of Sicily, though the island was still held by the Saracens. Thither he sent his younger brother, Roger, while he continued his conquests in southern Italy. He pursued the flying Greeks to the Ionian Islands and Albania.

19. Robert Guiscard had thrice defeated the Emperor Alexis Comnenus when the pope, St. Gregory VII., ap-

16. What took the Normans to Italy? 17. Tell of Tancred's sons. 18. What of Pope Leo and the Normans? Who was Robert Guiscard? Tell of his conquests.

pealed to him for aid against Henry IV. of Germany, who was besieging the Sovereign Pontiff in Rome (1084). Robert flew to the assistance of his suzerain and of the Holy See, relieved the pope, and, conducting him to Salerno, returned to pursue the Greeks, but died in Cephalonia (1085). To his youngest son, Robert Bursa, fell most of the inheritance. The eldest, Bohemond, prince of Tarentum, had little but his sword, with which he carved a glorious fortune for himself in the East. The direct line of Robert Guiscard ended with William, son and successor of Roger (1127).

20. Kingdom of the Two Sicilies (1139).—With only three hundred knights Roger, the twelfth son of Tancred, took Messina, an important city in Sicily. After an heroic struggle of thirty years he drove out the Saracens and made himself master of the whole island (1060-1091), taking the title of “grand count.” His son, Roger II., succeeded, and on the death of his cousin William inherited the latter’s estates in southern Italy. Pope Innocent II. confirmed him in possession, granting him the title of “King of the Two Sicilies,” on condition of his acknowledging the suzerainty of the Holy See (1139). To his new kingdom he added Malta, Tunis, Tripoli, and several cities of Greece. He ruled the Mediterranean and menaced Constantinople. His son and grandson succeeded him, but their reigns were less glorious; and after the death of the latter the Emperor Henry VI. of Germany, by virtue of his marriage with Constance, the daughter of Roger, transferred the kingdom of the Two Sicilies to the German crown (1189). Thus by the close of the twelfth century the French Normans had defended the independence of the Holy See against the Germans, had rid southern Italy

19. What of Robert Guiscard and Henry IV. ? To whom did Robert leave his inheritance ? 20. Who achieved the conquest of Sicily ? What title was bestowed on Roger II. ? Tell of Roger’s conquests. What followed on his death ?

of the Greeks, and had driven back the Mussulmans to Africa.

21. Edward the Confessor (1042-1066); Harold; and William, Duke of Normandy.—Edward, son of Ethelred II., called from Normandy to ascend the English throne, had learned to love Norman ways and civilization. This led him to invite the Normans to his court and favor them, which gave umbrage to his own nobles and people. He was a good and just king, nevertheless, full of piety and zeal for his people's good. He lessened their taxes and abolished the *danegett*. He renewed good laws which had become extinct. The only war in which he engaged was against MacBeth, the murderer of King Duncan of Scotland and usurper of his throne. MacBeth was slain, and Malcolm, Duncan's son, placed on the throne.

22. Jealousy of Norman influence and the ambition of powerful nobles, at whose head was Godwin, Earl of Kent, father-in-law of Edward, led to a revolt, which was quelled and Godwin banished. Returning soon, the earl drove out all foreigners. On the death of Godwin his son Harold, a young man of great military skill and capacity, assumed the lead of the family and of the native party. On the death of Edward he, with the consent of the people, seized on the throne in spite of an understanding between Edward and William, Duke of Normandy, the illegitimate son of Robert the Devil, that William was to succeed (January, 1066).

23. Norman Conquest of England (1066).—William, an able and ambitious prince, resolved on winning by force of arms the throne which he claimed. While holding Harold a prisoner at his court he had exacted a promise from him to aid him in ascending the English throne. Proclaiming

21. Whom did Edward the Confessor favor? What was Edward's character and policy? 22. Tell of Godwin. What course did Harold take? 23. Who opposed Harold's claim? On what grounds?

the perjury of Harold, and by his representations winning the approval of Pope Alexander II. for his claims, he assembled an immense army and set sail for England.

24. Harold meanwhile was in the north fighting against his brother Tostig, who with Harold Hardrada, King of Norway, had invaded the country. Defeating and slaying both, he heard on the victorious battle-field of William's arrival on the Sussex coast. Hastening southwards by forced marches, he came in sight of the new invader near Hastings, where he took up a strong position on a hill at Senlac, his men fighting on foot around him. All day the battle raged for the possession of England, the Saxons opposing an invincible front to the Norman horsemen and bowmen. William at last drew them from their position by a feigned flight, and the Saxon cause was lost. As evening fell an arrow pierced Harold's eye and the day was over. His two brothers and most of his army fell with him. William occupied Dover and pushed on at once to London, where he was crowned at Westminster, December 25, 1066.

25. **William the Conqueror (1066-1087).**—To awe the citizens of London, the capital, William built a strong fortress known as the Tower. There were various revolts and conspiracies during the reign, but all were put down with a stern hand. Apart from the blood shed in acquiring and maintaining the throne William proved a wise and able sovereign. He was harsh, however, to the natives. He parcelled out the kingdom in estates among his followers, retaining for himself the chief proprietorship of six hundred baronies, comprising sixty-two thousand five hundred knights' fees of one hundred and twenty acres each. He had drawn up a registry of all the estates in

24. How was Harold employed? Describe the battle of Hastings. The result of the battle? When and where was William crowned? 25. How did William act? How did he divide the kingdom?

England, called the *Land Book*, but by the Saxon natives the Book of Doom, or *Doomsday*.

26. The feudal system gave him almost absolute authority. He revived the ancient taxes, even the *danegelt*, to fill the royal coffers. To stay conspiracy he ordered the *curfew* (cover-fire) bell to be rung throughout the kingdom at eight in the evening, when all lights had to be extinguished. The Norman tongue, a bastard mingling of French and Latin, was made the language of the courts. To the clergy William was liberal. Lanfranc was made Archbishop of Canterbury, and proved a wise reformer.

CHAPTER III.

GERMANY AND ITALY.

FROM the dismemberment of the Carolingian Empire till the Investitures (888-1073) Germany and Italy are distinct. Later on Germany subjects Italy.

SECTION I. The Germanic Kingdom and the Northern Races (888-962).

1. **Arnulf and Louis IV.**—Arnulf, nephew of Charles the Suabian, was welcomed as king of the Eastern Franks by all the Germans. Eudes of France, Rudolph and Louis of the two Burgundies, and Berenger of northern Italy did him homage. In return he defeated near Louvain a force of eighty thousand Northmen headed by Sigefried. In the east he contended against the Wends and the Bohemians and Moravians. He formed a league with the Magyars against Zwentibald, Duke of Moravia. Zwentibald was vanquished, but the alliance proved unfortunate for Arnulf's successors. Arnulf had himself crowned in Italy as Emperor of the West; but

What was the Doomsday Book? 26. What effect had the Norman invasion on England? How did William treat the clergy? 1. What of Arnulf? Tell of his wars. As what was he crowned?

as soon as he recrossed the Alps his authority was disowned by the Italians. He died soon after (899). His son, Louis IV., then seven years old, was acknowledged king by the German nobles and by the two Lorraines. During his minority the great lords strengthened their power in the provinces. At the same period Arpad, Khan of the Hungarians, after hanging the last of the Moravian princes, invaded Germany, slew the dukes of Bavaria and Thuringia, and then proceeded to overrun western Europe. Louis IV. died during his minority (911).

2. Elective Kings; Conrad I. (911-918).—With Louis perished the Germanic branch of the Carolingians. The Lorraines fell to the king of France, Charles the Simple. The Germans proceeded to elect their king, and chose Conrad, Duke of Franconia. At once ensued a struggle between the king and the great vassals, one of whom, Henry of Saxony, defeated the royal army, while the other, Arnulf of Bavaria, called in the Hungarians. Conrad fell mortally wounded fighting against the Bavarians. Calling his brother Eberhard, he bade him convey the royal insignia to Henry of Saxony, his worst enemy. Henry, on receiving the commission, was at the chase, whence his name of the “Fowler.” Proclaimed and solemnly consecrated king at Fritzlar, he became the founder of the Saxon line (918).

3. The Saxon Line; Henry the Fowler (918-936).—Henry at once showed that he was resolved to be master. Suabia and Bavaria and the two Lorraines soon submitted to his sway. He routed the Danes and strengthened his frontiers on every side. He compelled Wenceslaus, Duke of the Czechs of Bohemia, to pay him tribute. Germany had been under tribute to the Hungarians for seven years.

What followed on the death of Arnulf? What of Arpad? 2. Whom did the Germans choose as king? What followed the choice? 3. What course did Henry pursue? Whom did he subdue?

Henry refused to pay tribute longer. Two Hungarian armies invaded the kingdom, but they were beaten at Merseburg with a loss of thirty-six thousand men (933). Strengthening his kingdom in all its parts, Henry left it to his son Otho by securing the latter's election.

4. Otho I. (936).—Otho, like his father, was determined to rule in all his kingdom and to have his rule respected by his neighbors. He was eminently successful. He reduced Boleslaus the Cruel of Bohemia, the murderer of St. Wenceslaus, to fealty, and exacted the same of Harold, King of Denmark. He gave his daughters in marriage to King Louis of France and the Duke of France, thus making himself arbiter of the kingdom. His reign was a series of exhausting wars, in all of which he was triumphant. He made the Slavic tribes tributary up to the Oder. For arranging the dispute between Hugh the Great and King Louis he received all of Lorraine that remained in French hands. He married Adelaide, widow of Lothaire of Italy, whose throne had been usurped by Berenger II. Defeating Berenger, he was himself crowned King of Italy by the Archbishop of Mentz, and Emperor of the West by Pope John XII. (February 2, 962). Quarrelling with the pope later on, Otho had Leo VIII. set up in John's place. This led to great scandal and trouble. Otho also invaded Lower Italy, defeated the Greeks, and took Apulia and Calabria.

SECTION II. Italy and the Western Empire (888-962).

5. After Charles of Suabia was deposed Guy of Spoleto and Berenger of Friuli, descendants of Charlemagne, claimed the title of emperor and king of Italy. Berenger was defeated and his rival crowned emperor by Pope Ste-

What happened at Merseburg? 4. Tell of Otho's achievements. How did French Lorraine come to him? What titles did he win? What resulted from his quarrel with the pope?

phen VI. (891). He associated with him his son Lambert, whom, before his death, he had crowned by Pope Formosus (894). Three years later, the throne being vacant, Berenger again claimed it, and received at Pavia the crown of Italy. His title was disputed by Louis, King of Cis-Juran Burgundy, a grandson on the mother's side of the Emperor Louis II. The nobles hailed Louis as king, and he was crowned Emperor of the West by Pope Benedict IV. in 900. But he was taken prisoner by Berenger and his eyes were put out (905). He survived twenty years. Berenger was engaged in constant struggles with the Hungarians, Saracens, and the Italian nobles. He was crowned emperor by Pope John X. (915), and, advancing at the head of the Italians to the Garigliano, he routed the Saracens, who had held that post for thirty years. His conquests and reign were cut short by a conspiracy of his nobles, who assassinated him on Christmas night (924).

6. Italian Dissensions.—From the time of the fall of the Roman Empire Italy was made the prey of every new invader. The powerful nobles who had fastened on the soil cared for no rule but their own. This led to constant conflict. Previous to the tenth century the country was split up among a few great dukedoms and marquisates. The Greeks claimed Bari, Tarentum, and the southern coasts; the Saracens had conquered some parts of the western coast and all Sicily. Pavia, Milan, Pisa, and a few other cities acknowledged the king of Italy. Rome and the cities belonging to the patrimony of St. Peter paid their first allegiance to the pope, after to the emperor crowned by him; but the pope's possessions were often invaded, now by one, now by another.

5. What happened on the deposition of Charles of Suabia? Describe the struggle for the crown. Describe the reign of Berenger. 6. Describe the dissensions and divisions in Italy.

7. The nobles had appealed to Rudolph II., King of Trans-Juran Burgundy, to rid them of the Emperor Berenger. After electing him king they repented, and two years later chose Hugh, his administrator. Changing again, they recalled Rudolph, but for twenty years Hugh maintained an iron rule over them. Then Berenger, Marquis of Ivrea, son of the Emperor Berenger's daughter, gained such a following that Hugh consented to abdicate on condition of their placing his young son, Lothaire, on the throne. Berenger was appointed tutor, and Lothaire received the iron crown (945), with Adelaide, daughter of Rudolph II., as consort. Five years later Lothaire died, as was suspected, of poison. Berenger grasped the throne, cruelly imprisoned the queen, whose virtues and misfortunes roused such sympathy among the Italians that Otho the Great was called in to take up her cause (954).

SECTION III. The German Emperors of the West (962).

8. **Otho the Great.**—Otho aimed at playing the rôle of Charlemagne. Entering Rome, he espoused Adelaide, and the royal pair were crowned at Pavia. Dissensions broke out in Otho's family. Leaving the title of king of Italy to Berenger II. and his son Adalbert, Otho hastened back to Germany to quell the revolt of his son Ludolph, Conrad, his son-in-law, and Henry, his brother. This he effected in two years. He diminished the power of the great vassals, increased the number of the lesser ones, and organized a powerful army. Marching against the Hungarians, who had aided the revolt, he broke their power at Lech, near Augsburg (August 10, 955). He then established the eastern marquisate, now Austria, driving the Hungarians beyond its borders. His northern frontier he

7. To whom did the Italian nobles appeal? What was the result? Why was Otho called in? 8. What was Otho's ambition? How did he act? Tell of his campaigns.

secured by a victory over the Slavs of the Elbe. He sent an embassy to the Caliph Abd-er-Rahman III. to soften the lot of the Spanish Christians under the Omniades of Cordova.

9. Otho crowned Emperor of the Romans.—On the death of Pope Agapetus II., Octavian, son and successor of Count Alberic of Tusculum, Roman patrician and master of the city, had himself elected pope under the title of John XII. He was the first pope to change his name on accession, and all his successors have followed this example. His administration proved a wise and firm one. He wished to extend its benefits beyond the city limits, but was met by the opposition of Berenger II., who threatened Rome itself. The pope invited Otho to receive the imperial crown and deliver the city. Again Otho crossed the Alps and compelled the submission and deposition of Berenger and his son Adalbert at Milan. Entering Rome, he received the homage of the people, and renounced in his own name and in that of his successors all interference with the jurisdiction of the Holy Roman Church. He was then crowned emperor (February 2, 962), and the Roman Empire, after a vacancy of thirty-eight years, was thus again renewed in the West. There it remained, titularly at least, until the opening of the nineteenth century (1806).

10. Otho had hardly left Rome when the pope broke his promise to enter into no alliance with the enemies of the emperor. He joined with Berenger. Otho returned and the pope fled. The Romans were compelled to take an oath to acknowledge no pope save such as should hold the see at the will of Otho. A council was held at Rome and John summoned to appear. On his refusal he was accused of various crimes, condemned, and deposed. The

9. How did John XII. become Pope? For what is he remarkable? Tell of his relations with Otho. The result? 10. What followed the pope's rupture with Otho?

proceeding was neither in accordance with the canon law nor valid in any sense. Otho had Leo VIII. elected pope and left Rome.

11. On his departure Pope John returned to his see and revenged himself on his opponents. He died soon after, as was alleged, in the very commission of a criminal act; but this is generally rejected by impartial historians as an invention of his enemies. A new pope, Benedict V., was elected in his stead and the emperor's pope rejected. Otho returned to Rome, exiled Benedict to Germany, and reinstated Leo, who soon after died. Otho made John XIII. his successor, but the Romans expelled him, Otho having returned to Germany after imprisoning Berenger and defeating Adalbert, but his army nearly perished of an epidemic on the march. He re-entered Italy at the head of a new army to avenge John XIII. and crown his son Emperor of the West. On his return to Germany he died (973).

12. **Otho's Son and Grandson (973-1002).**—The reign of Otho II. was one of prosperity to Germany, notwithstanding the troubles caused by Henry of Bavaria and Lothaire, King of France. Otho convoked an assembly of the discontented Italian nobles at Pavia, and caused them all to be massacred at a banquet. This treacherous deed roused all Italy against him. Urged by Theophania, his wife, a Greek princess, who wished all the Greek provinces of Italy for her dower, he raised a small army, composed mainly of Italians, to seize the Greek principalities and cities of the south. After meeting with some success his troops were surprised and dispersed by a body of Saracens in the service of the Byzantine catapan. The Italians turned him into ridicule, and he died in Italy of chagrin or poi-

11. Who succeeded John XII.? What action did Otho take? What followed?
12. What of Otho II. and the Italian nobles? What foolish enterprise did he undertake? The result?

son, after securing the election of his son Otho, not yet four years of age (983).

13. Troubles arose in consequence of the minority, but were settled by the empresses Theophania and Adelaide and the Archbishop of Mayence. When fifteen Otho was crowned at Rome by his kinsman, Gregory V., the first German pope. For years there had been a strong opposition to the popes in Rome. The emperor came back, took the castle of San Angelo, and put Crescentius, the leader of the faction which was hostile to all foreigners, to death. When Gregory V. died Otho secured the election of the learned monk Gerbert, one of his preceptors, who took the title of Sylvester II. and was the first French pope. The emperor received great aid from the wise advice of the pontiff. He conferred the title of king on Boleslaus the Brave, Duke of Poland, and on St. Stephen of Hungary. The emperor's promising career came to an end at the early age of twenty-two (1002).

14. St. Henry Emperor (1002-1024).—At the death of Otho III. without heirs, the house of Saxony was represented by Henry, Duke of Bavaria, who was elected emperor under the title of Henry II. Hardoin, Marquis of Ivrea, laid claim to the crown of Italy. He was defeated and his rival crowned by Benedict VIII. (1014), Hardoin dying in the following year. Henry then proceeded to bring the King of Poland to allegiance, and helped the King of Hungary in evangelizing his people, and the pope and Normans to rid southern Italy of Saracen pirates. He ruled peacefully in his own dominions, favored religion and learning, and aided materially in spreading the faith among the Slavs, Scandinavians, and Hungarians.

15. If the tenth century had been dark the eleventh

13. By whom was Otho III. crowned? What was the state of Rome at this time? What action did Otho take? Who was the first French pope? 14. Who succeeded Otho III.? Describe Henry's reign.

opened with brighter promise. On the papal throne sat Sylvester II., on the German St. Henry; in Hungary reigned St. Stephen, in Poland Boleslaus the Brave; in England and Denmark Canute ruled, in Spain Sancho the Great, in Russia St. Vladimir, and in France the pious King Robert. Henry died childless in 1024.

16. The Franconian Family.—The Saxon family ended with Henry II. The eight German dukes agreed to elect the least powerful of their number as king. This was Conrad, Duke of Franconia, a descendant of Otho the Great and nephew of Gregory V. He speedily evinced his power, reducing his vassals to allegiance. He received the imperial crown at Rome from Pope John XIX. He checked the great vassals by conferring new privileges on their inferiors. On the death of his uncle, Rudolph III., he inherited the kingdom of the two Burgundies (1032).

17. To Conrad II. succeeded his son, Henry III., surnamed the Black (1029-1056). After quelling disturbances in Burgundy, Lorraine, and Hungary he entered Italy to restore order in Rome, where Benedict IX., a mere boy, had been thrust into the chair of St. Peter by his relatives, the Counts of Tusculum. In 1044 Benedict abdicated and three claimants arose. Two of these were declared usurpers and intruders, while the third, Gregory VI., for the sake of peace in the Church, resigned his office. Henry had the Bishop of Bamberg, Clement II., elected, and with his wife, Agnes of Poitiers, was crowned by him. After Clement II. the emperor designated Damasus II., St. Leo, and Victor II. The choice in each case was good, but the principle of imperial appointment to the Papacy was essentially a bad one.

15. How did the eleventh century open? 16. Who was the last of the Saxon family? Who was elected king? What of his reign? 17. Who succeeded Conrad II.? What did he do at Rome?

SECTION IV. Cis-Juran and Trans-Juran Burgundy.

18. Cis-Juran Burgundy.—The two Burgundies, formed out of the wreck of Charlemagne's empire, were separate states up to 933, then united for a century and incorporated with the German Empire. Cis-Juran Burgundy, comprising the valley of the Rhone, had Arles for its capital. It had three kings: Boson, a son-in-law of the Emperor Louis II.; his son, the Emperor Louis III., whose eyes were put out by Berenger; and Hugh of Provence, a usurper who, to secure Italy, abandoned the Mediterranean coast and the Alps to the Saracens, while he ceded the rest of the kingdom to his rival, Rudolph II., King of Trans-Juran Burgundy (933).

19. Trans-Juran Burgundy.—Trans-Juran Burgundy, founded in 888 by Rudolph Welf, comprised at first a part of Switzerland and of Franche-Comté. After the cession of the Cis-Juran the united kingdoms became the kingdom of Arles, but never attained to great power. Its chief monarch was Conrad the Peaceful (937-993). He set the Saracens and Hungarians against each other, and with his small army came in to reap the benefits of their struggle. The kingdom soon disappeared, and from it rose the sovereign counties of Savoy, Provence, Dauphiny, Neufchâtel, together with several ecclesiastical provinces.

CHAPTER IV.

SPAIN, THE ARABS, AND THE GREEKS.

SECTION I. Struggle between the Arabs and Spanish Christians.

1. The Saracens in Spain.—Though the Christians maintained an heroic struggle in Spain, the Saracens long held

18. What of the two Burgundies? What was the capital of Cis-Juran Burgundy? Name the kings. 19. Who founded Trans-Juran Burgundy? What became of the two kingdoms? What of the kingdom of Arles?

the supremacy. The latter had many powerful princes, who always appeared just when the Christians were weakest. On the death of Alfonso II. Abd-er-Rahman II. retook the lost provinces and wrested Barcelona from the King of France. Then came Alfonso III., the Great (861-911), who crossed the Douro and retook much of what had been lost. He was a powerful monarch, as great in peace as in war, and erected the famous basilica of St. James at Compostella.

2. Two Great Caliphs.—In 911 the caliphate fell to Abd-er-Rahman III. (911-961), the very year that Alfonso resigned the throne to his sons. Abd-er-Rahman defeated them in the vale of Jonquera, crossed the Pyrenees, pillaged Gascony, and besieged the stronghold of Zamora. He was stoutly opposed in the new kingdoms of Navarre and Leon, the latter founded by the successors of Pelayo.

3. Conquests in Africa.—Abd-er-Rahman was more successful against his co-religionists in Africa. He conquered Morocco and Algeria, and spent the last twenty years of his life in peace and in great splendor; yet he tells that, after fifty years of reign, in all his life he could count but fourteen days of true happiness. His son, Hakem II. (961-976), was a patron of learning and of the arts of peace. Seeing his people disregarding the Koran's prohibition of the use of wine, he had two-thirds of the vines of Spain torn up by the roots.

4. Mohammed Al-Mansur.—With Hakem fell the personal power of the caliphs. His successor, Hesham II., or Issam (976-1008), an effeminate prince, was sustained by the arm of Mohammed, surnamed Al-Mansur (the Victorious), a general who won fifty-six battles in twenty-two years. He met his first defeat at Calatanazor against the united

1. Describe the conflict in Spain. Tell of Alfonso III. 2. Tell of Abd-er-Rahman. 3. Describe the reign and conquests of Abd-er-Rahman. What of his son? 4. Who was Mohammed Al-Mansur?

armies of the Count of Castile and the kings of Leon and Navarre. Al-Mansur starved himself to death rather than survive what he thought his dishonor (998). His fall led to the final downfall of the Western caliphate (1031). Hesham III., after a series of revolts and disasters, was deposed.

5. Sancho the Great.—About this time came great leaders to the Christians of Spain in the persons of Sancho the Great, King of Navarre (1000-1035); Ferdinand the Great, first King of Castile (1035-1065), his son; and the great captain known as the Cid. By conquest and alliance Sancho united under his family all the Christians of Spain. At his death he divided his kingdom among his four sons, thus again breaking the unity. Ferdinand, at his death, imitated his father in this; but during his life he had greatly increased his kingdom at the expense of the petty Mohammedan princes on his borders. His great general was Ruy Diaz de Bivar, surnamed the Cid, also *El Campeador*, the Champion. For sixty years this model hero and Christian defeated all the foes against whom he contended, and ended his career by the conquest, from the Moors, of Valencia, which was granted him as an appanage.

6. Moorish Anarchy.—The caliphate of Cordova, which fell with Hesham III., was succeeded by a crowd of jarring and petty kingdoms. The anarchy extended to Africa and Asia, and various secret societies rose up, spreading destruction on every side.

SECTION II. The Greek Empire.

7. Greek Anarchy.—Had the Greeks any native stability they might now have recovered their Eastern empire; but

What followed the defeat of Al Mansur? 5. What Spanish leaders now arose? Tell of the work of Sancho. Of Ferdinand. Who was the Cid, and what did he do? 6. What followed the fall of the Cordovan Caliphate?

they, like the Moslems, were given up to internal dissensions. After the deposition of Michael I. (813) the heresy of the Iconoclasts was revived under Leo the Armenian, Michael the Stammerer, and Theophilus. The latter was defeated and slain by the Mohammedans. His widow, Theodora, aided by Ignatius, the patriarch, son of Michael I., restored peace to the Church. But the woes of the empire broke out anew under her son, Michael III., the Drunkard (842-867). He was abetted in his wickedness by his uncle Bardas. Theodora was exiled, Ignatius deposed and his place filled by Photius, the eunuch, a learned and crafty man. He had himself consecrated by the Bishop of Syracuse, and took possession of the patriarchal see of Constantinople on Christmas day (857).

8. The Schism of Photius.—Pope Nicholas I. protested against the intrusion, whereupon Photius attacked the Roman Church, charging it with inserting the word *filioque* in the Creed, and various so-called irregularities. A series of disturbances ended in the assassination of Bardas and Michael by Basil the Macedonian, who restored St. Ignatius, imprisoned Photius, and, by the authority of Pope Adrian II., convoked an œcumenical council (869-870) at Constantinople. The cunning Photius succeeded in winning over Basil, and on the death of Ignatius Photius was replaced in the see, whence he was again driven by Basil's successor, Leo the Philosopher.

9. The Macedonian Dynasty (867-1057).—Basil I., the son of a Macedonian farmer, was the founder of a dynasty that filled the throne for two hundred years. He was himself an able prince; but his son and successor, Leo, was a learned man rather than a wise ruler, as was also his grand-

7. Who revived the Iconoclast heresy? Who restored peace? What of Michael III.? Of Photius? 8. Describe the quarrel of Photius with Rome. 9. Who founded the Macedonian dynasty?

son, Constantine. Their successor, Romanus the Younger, a parricide and debauchee, had two celebrated generals, the Phocas. Nicephorus Phocas recaptured the island of Crete from the Saracens, and during the minority of Basil and Constantine, sons and successors of Romanus II., he defeated the Bulgarians and vanquished the Saracens in Asia. He was proclaimed emperor (963) in conjunction with the two young princes. He then conquered Cyprus, Cilicia, and a part of Syria as far as the Euphrates. His general, John Zimisce, took Antioch, revolted and slew Nicephorus, and usurped the throne in his place. He in turn governed firmly, beat the Russians in Bulgaria, and in a series of Syrian campaigns routed the Arabs. He was poisoned by a eunuch (976), and Basil II. reigned alone.

10. Conquests of Basil II.—Basil put down revolt and sent the rebellious generals against the Saracens in Italy, the islands of the Mediterranean, and Asia. After a long struggle he himself defeated and annihilated the Bulgarians. He possessed himself of the Crimea to check the Russian advance, and incorporated all his conquests into his empire, which at his death (1025) was greatly enlarged.

11. Decline; Michael Cerularius.—From the death of Basil II. to the accession of the family of Comnenus there passed fifty-six years of varied disaster and disgrace. After the second deposition of Photius union between the church of Rome and of Constantinople was restored. In 1043 Michael Cerularius, being raised to the patriarchate of Constantinople, took up and added to the schism of Photius, and excommunicated the pope, the bishops and churches of the West. The pope, St. Leo IX., sent legates to Constantinople, who were well received by the Emperor Constantine Monomachus. Cerularius, remaining obstinate, was at last

Who were the Phocas? What of Nicephorus Phocas? What of Zimisce?
10. Describe the reign of Basil II. 11. What followed on the death of Basil?
Tell of Michael Cerularius and his work.

excommunicated (July 16, 1054), and the legates departed. From that day forth the patriarchal church of Constantinople remained separate from that of Rome.

CHAPTER V.

THE CHURCH AND FEUDALISM.

SECTION I. The Catholic Hierarchy in and about the Tenth Century.

1. Dangers to the Pontificate.—Up to the end of the tenth century the popes remained in the position created for them by the establishment of the temporal power. They were independent princes at Rome, where they crowned the emperors, who in turn professed to protect them. Nevertheless they suffered from the turbulence of the times, and often from the violence of Catholic princes and nobles. After the pontificate of Formosus (896) a long series of troubles set in. The powerful families in and about Rome were desirous of placing their sons on the apostolic throne. Feudalism encroached on the free election to the Papacy, and later on the intervention of the German emperors threatened to convert the See of Peter into an appanage of the German crown. Notwithstanding all these difficulties and dangers there were during this period many saintly popes.

2. Clerical Abuses.—Troubles and scandals arose among the higher clergy in the various nations, who united to their ecclesiastical character that of lay nobles owning temporalities, for which they owed homage to the princes or great fiefs. Hence the high ecclesiastical appointments became very desirable positions for the younger sons of

1. What dangers threatened the Roman pontificate? How did feudalism affect the Papacy? What was the ambition of Germany? 2. How did the danger spread to the clergy?

noble houses, many of whom were priests in little more than name. The inferior clergy, as a consequence, deteriorated when those set over them gave such ill example. Nevertheless Europe through all could boast of many learned and pious clerics, bishops, and saints, who were models of zeal and holy living and strove to stem the tide of corruption and abuse that had set in on the Church.

3. Pope Sylvester II.—So evil were the times that the year 1000 was looked to with dread by multitudes as the year of final judgment. General consternation prevailed, which even the calmness and wisdom of Pope Sylvester II. (999-1003) could not wholly stay. He it was who introduced the use of Arabic figures, which he had learned from the Moors in Spain; and he was the first fired to the idea of the Crusades at the cruel treatment of Christian pilgrims by the Fatimite caliph, Hakem. A fleet of Genoese and Pisans was raised at his summons, but they perished miserably on the Syrian coast.

SECTION II. Conversion of the Scandinavians; St. Anscarius.

4. Conversion of the Danes.—While wars and troubles were going on all over Christendom the peaceful and heroic work of Christian missionaries never ceased. They did not wait for the barbarians to come in contact with the converted people, but went amongst them to preach the Gospel, which in many instances they watered with their blood. Willibrord had, as has been seen, purchased thirty Danish captive children, whom he trained as missionaries to their pagan countrymen. A hundred years later Harold the Dane, with his retinue, was baptized at Mayence in presence of Louis le Débonnaire. Departing, he took with him the monk Anscarius of Corbie (825-865), who spent

3. What superstition arose about the year 1000? Who originated the Crusades? What became of the expedition? 4. Tell of the missionary labors at this time. Who converted the Danes?

forty years among the Danes and crowned his labors with the sacrifice of his life. Harold was driven out and the country closed to the Gospel.

5. St. Anscarius.—Anscarius joined a French embassy to the Swedes, converted many, and built several churches. He was appointed to the newly erected archiepiscopal see of Hamburg and endowed with legatine powers over Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. Eric of Jutland, who came to destroy his see, granted instead leave to build churches and preach in his own dominion. Anscarius continued to send priests in all directions till his death in 865.

6. Sweyn and Canute.—His successors in the see of Hamburg were equally zealous ; but the princes remained pagan and at times persecuted the missionaries. The victories of the emperors over Gorm and Harold Blaaland first secured general liberty to preach. Harold was baptized (972) and favored Christianity, but was dethroned by Sweyn, his pagan son, who became king of Denmark, Norway, and conqueror of England. But his son and heir, Canute (1014-1035), became a great Christian prince, and his successors, especially Sweyn II., defended Christianity against the votaries of Odin. Under St. Canute IV. (1080-1086) Christianity flourished in nearly all Denmark.

7. Conversion of Sweden.—In Sweden St. Anscarius first obtained leave to preach in the temple of Upsal, the sanctuary of the worship of Odin ; but progress was slow. Olaf, baptized in 1001, was the first Christian king of Sweden. Under and after him churches multiplied, especially under Sverker and St. Eric IX. Scara was the first episcopal see, and Upsal finally became the metropolitan.

8. Conversion of Norway.—Norway, from the roving character of its daring pirates, early learned something of

5. Describe the work of St. Anscarius. 6. How did Christianity progress in Denmark? What of Harold, Sweyn, and Canute? 7. How and under whom was Sweden converted?

Christianity. The conversion of their great leader, Rollo, in France, served as an example to the other chieftains. National opposition softened under Olaf I. (994), and ceased wholly under St. Olaf II. (1033), who, aided by Anglo-Saxon and German missionaries, founded the primatial basilica of Drontheim and the cathedrals of Bergen, Hammer, and Stavanger. In the year 1000 Iceland received the faith by vote in popular assembly, and the Icelanders proceeded to convert Greenland, which they had discovered. Thus all the Scandinavians received the true faith.

SECTION III. Conversion of the Slavs.

9. The Slavs.—The Slavs believed in *spirits*, good and bad, with a vague notion of a supreme being and hope in a future life. They materialized their spirits, and had a powerful priesthood under a supreme pontiff at Novgorod, who offered human sacrifices and gained a great ascendancy over the people. The Slavs established by Heraclius, or Constantine Pogonatus, in the two Illyrias, while conforming outwardly to the Christian faith, secretly adhered to their own. The same practice was observed by those scattered along the borders of the Carolingian Empire, who, on the decline of the Frankish power, returned to their native gods.

10. Apostolate of Methodius and Constantine.—The first great missionaries of the Slavs were the brothers Methodius and Constantine, born in Thessalonica in the ninth century. Constantine was sent by the patriarch Ignatius to Kherson, where he converted many. Methodius was called by King Bogoris to preach to the Bulgarians of the lower Danube. He converted the king, who was baptized in the name of Michael. The nation followed, and

8. By and under whom was Norway converted? Iceland? Greenland?
9. What was the religion of the Slavs? 10. Who were the chief missionaries to the Slavs? Describe the work of Methodius and Constantine.

Constantine was called to his brother's aid. Constantine, a learned linguist, invented the Slavonian alphabet and a current hand, to which he arranged a liturgy. He translated most of the Bible into this tongue, and by this means gained over to Christianity not only the southern Bulgarians but all the Slavonic nations. King Michael entered a monastery, but continued to watch over his people. But the Bulgarians, being incorporated with the Eastern empire in 1019, followed it into schism.

11. Conversion of the Moravians.—At the close of the ninth century the Moravians were the most powerful of the Slavs. They asked missionaries from Constantinople, and the brothers Cyril and Methodius were sent to them by Pope Nicholas I. (863). After six years' labor all the Moravians were converted. Cyril died soon after (868), and Methodius was consecrated Archbishop of Pannonia. For twenty years he labored among them, using the Slavonian liturgy, sanctioned by the Holy See, and completing his brother's translation of the Scriptures into that tongue. While holding the central Slavs he confirmed their southern brethren in the faith. He labored with the Czechs of Bohemia, whose duke, Borziwoi, he baptized (890). Borziwoi and his wife, St. Ludmilla, strove zealously for the conversion of their subjects; but after the duke's death Ludmilla and her grandson, St. Wenceslaus, were slain under a pagan reaction, which was only overcome by the triumph of the faith under Boleslaus the Good (967-999).

12. Conversion of the Poles.—The Poles, a branch of the Slavs, received Christianity under Duke Micislaus, who, at the entreaty of his wife, Dombrowska of Bohemia, became a Christian (966). Thereupon the Poles de-

What was Constantine's special work? Whom did the Bulgarians follow?
11. Who converted the Moravians? Describe the work of Methodius. Under whom did the faith triumph? 12. What of the Poles?

stroyed their idols and cast them into the Vistula. St. Adalbert, of Prague, moved them greatly, and his barbarous death at the hands of the Prussians moved them still more. They went in crowds to visit his tomb and crave baptism. Boleslaus the Brave (992-1025), son of Micislaus, helped to complete the conversion of his countrymen.

13. Otho the Great had founded six bishoprics among the Slavs of the Elbe, but still they were slow to accept Christianity, even though urged by their pious prince, Gottschalk. The latter being killed in a fanatic revolt, the pagan priests seized the bishop, John of Mecklenburg, and immolated him in their temple. The conversion of the Russians under Vladimir has been seen.

14. Conversion of the Hungarians.—When the Hungarians saw their khan, Geysa, led to baptism by his wife, Saralta (996), all asked to be baptized. Nevertheless they continued to sacrifice to their gods until Vaïc, baptized Stephen, succeeded his father (997-1038). This brave and just prince labored zealously for the faith, and, by marrying the sister of St. Henry, entered into close alliance with Catholic Germany, whose civilization he introduced into his kingdom. He founded the archbishopric of Gran (Strigonium), ten bishoprics, and four abbeys in Hungary, besides hospices for his subjects at Ravenna, Rome, Constantinople, and Jerusalem.

15. Thus the three Scandinavian kingdoms, the four great Slavonian peoples, and the two principal Scythian nations were gathered to the Church and gave great fruits of holiness, while the blessing brought civilization to their peoples. In the north of Europe were still left some pagans, and in the south the Mohammedans.

What event chiefly moved the Poles to Christianity? 13. What of the Slavs of the Elbe? 14. How came the Hungarians to be converted? Tell of the work of King Stephen. 15. What pagans were now left?

FOURTH EPOCH (1073-1270),

FROM THE ACCESSION OF ST. GREGORY VII. TO THE DEATH OF ST. LOUIS—197 YEARS.

DURING this period the Sovereign Pontiffs are freed from the encroachments of feudalism and imperial power, the Crusades are undertaken, and Catholic civilization shows itself in masterpieces of Christian art.

CHAPTER I.

THE POPES AND THE EMPIRE (1073-1250).

SECTION I. Investitures.

1. The Church during the Tenth Century.—As has been seen, the state of the clergy during the tenth century was at a very low grade. Church benefices were for sale, and corruption of every kind found its way into the whole ecclesiastical body. A grave source of disorder was the power of investiture acquired by the monarchs. They invested archbishops, bishops, and abbots with the insignia of their office, as in the case of purely civic dignitaries. The marks of spiritual office conferring the charge over souls were bestowed by monarchs in great measure on their creatures, for the benefices attached were often sources of vast wealth and revenue. The natural corruption that ensued spread among all ranks, ecclesiastical and lay.

2. The Papacy itself was, owing to its position, subject to the caprices now of Italian princes, now of German

What does the fourth epoch embrace? 1. Describe the state of the clergy during the tenth century. What were the chief sources of disorder? 2. To what was the Papacy exposed? How came the power of veto?

emperors. At all events it was never wholly free, but had to find a protector somewhere. Hence was introduced the power of confirming or vetoing a pontifical election. The pope thus was in danger of becoming a mere vassal of a temporal prince.

3. Hildebrand (1049-1073).—At the abdication of Gregory VI. in the Council of Sutri (1046) the ex-pontiff, now John Gratian, following the emperor, took with him his pupil Hildebrand, the son of a Tuscan carpenter. The pair stopped at Cluny, where Hildebrand received the religious habit at the hands of St. Odilon. His learning and virtues soon marked him out for dignity. He was sent to the emperor's court, where for some time he acted as tutor to his godson, who afterward became Henry IV. Bruno, Bishop of Toul and uncle of Henry III., had been designated by the latter to succeed Pope Damasus II. Hildebrand urged him to go barefoot to Rome in pilgrim's garb, and so present himself to the electors. He did so and was unanimously elected, taking for title Leo IX. This was the first break from the emperor's power. Hildebrand was called to Rome and made cardinal (1049). He immediately set about reforming the clergy and securing the independence of the Church.

4. Reforms of Hildebrand.—After the death of St. Leo IX. Hildebrand first secured the regular election of the pontiff at Rome and then prevailed on the emperor to accept it. This he did in the case of the three successors of Leo IX. Finally, under Nicholas II. (1059), rules for pontifical elections were drawn up which left to the king a mere formal sanction when all was over. The king was Henry IV., still under tutelage of his pious mother, Agnes of Poitou. Hildebrand met with great opposition in

3. Who was Hildebrand? Describe his early life. What advice did he give to Bruno? 4. What important reforms did Hildebrand institute? Were his reforms accepted?

his strenuous attempts to reform the clergy. The young Henry was forcibly taken by the great German nobles from the care of his mother. Encouraged in his freedom, he became an evil-liver, and to raise money sold ecclesiastical benefices to the highest bidder. He raised an anti-pope against Alexander II. (1061-1073), and both the Church and the German Empire were full of trouble.

5. Hildebrand Pope (April, 1073).—On the death of Alexander there was a great concourse of cardinals, bishops, clerics, and laity assembled in the basilica of St. Peter to celebrate his obsequies. Suddenly, and as with one voice, the cry arose, “Peter chooses the Archdeacon Hildebrand as successor.” He was there and then unanimously elected under the title of Gregory. Henry approved of the whole proceeding.

6. St. Gregory VII.—Gregory’s vast experience, unrelaxing zeal, and unalterable firmness came to his aid in a position and time that his keen eye saw full of trouble and of menace. He never faltered, but took up his great work of reform. He was a wise man, however, and his letters to the princes and great nobles announcing his accession were full of dignity and tempered counsel to aid in putting down the evils that afflicted the Church. Prince after prince, noble after noble, he won to his side, among the first the dauntless Robert Guiscard. He convoked an annual council at Rome, wherein were discussed all ecclesiastical questions of law and of fact. Disciplinary canons were here renewed; cases of ecclesiastics were decided on; the guilty suffered the penalty of their crimes, the weak were strengthened, the good encouraged. All began well.

7. Gregory and Henry.—But the storm was coming.

What of Henry IV.? 5. Describe the election of Hildebrand. 6. For what was Gregory VII. remarkable? How did he begin his reign? What council did he institute?

Henry at first professed the most filial submission and sorrow for the sins of his youth. He needed the pope's aid. Saxony and Thuringia had revolted against his tyranny, and the great vassals of the empire contemplated dethroning him. Petitions to the pope poured in to excommunicate him and release his vassals from their allegiance.

8. Interdiction of Investitures.—The pope upheld the king as best he could. In a council held at Rome (1075) he struck at the vice of investiture, forbidding any lay prince to confer and any ecclesiastic to receive any investiture whatever. The decree was published throughout Christendom, and none opposed it. Henry was now emperor elect and feared for his crown both in Germany and Italy. At Hohenburg (July 13, 1075) he triumphed over the Saxons. At once his courage rose and he bade the pope depose the prelates who had sided with the vanquished. Gregory refused. Henry thereupon, defying the pontifical decree, solemnly invested three German prelates. He further incited certain simoniacal prelates of Italy, headed by Guibert of Ravenna, to rise against the pope.

9. Henry excommunicated.—Guibert, in concert with Cencius, a factious Roman noble, conspired against the pontiff's life. Cencius seized him at midnight while celebrating Mass, but a rising of the populace delivered him. A cabal met at Worms under an excommunicated cardinal, and, heaping maledictions on Gregory, declared him deposed. Henry sent an insulting despatch to the pope announcing the fact (March, 1076). The pope responded by fulminating in full council against Henry and his abettors the sentence of excommunication, to be followed by deposition if within a year every one of the excommuni-

7. Tell of Henry IV.'s troubles. 8. How did Gregory deal with investiture? Did Henry accept the decree? 9. What passed at Rome? What passed at Worms? How did the pope act?

cated did not seek absolution from the Sovereign Pontiff in person.

10. Canossa.—The solemn sentence was published throughout Germany, and Henry's power at once fell from him. The great vassals withdrew, while Saxony, aided by Suabia, Bavaria, and Carinthia, took up arms. Henry's troops were defeated, and a diet held at Tribur (October 15, 1076) notified the king that if within the year the censure was not removed a king would be chosen in his place. The nobles informed the pope of their resolution and begged him to proceed to Augsburg to preside at a new diet. Gregory besought them not to be hasty, and, to save Henry, set out for Germany, but the rigor of winter forced him to stay at Canossa. Thither Henry set out to meet him, accompanied by his wife, his young son, and a small retinue.

11. To punish him for his crimes the pope, in accordance with the practice of the times, required him to perform a three days' rigorous penance in the enclosure of the castle before admitting him to an audience. Henry submitted without reserve, and the pope withdrew the ban of excommunication. This is a scene of which much is made in non-Catholic history, but it is plain that the pope acted throughout in favor of a king whom a signal from him could at the time have destroyed (January 26, 1077).

12. Revolt in Germany.—Henry had not left Canossa before he forgot his vows and set to work intriguing with factious Italians and simoniacal prelates against the pope. He tried to close Germany against the pontiff, at which news the German nobles assembled at Forchheim broke with the perjured prince without waiting

10. What followed the excommunication? 11. What happened at Canossa? 12. Was Henry true to his promises? What action did the German nobles take?

for the pope, and chose as king Rudolph of Suabia. Henry hastened back to Germany. Rudolph fell a victor on the bloody field of Elster (1080). The struggle was renewed under Hermann of Luxemburg, a brave warrior, but less to be feared than his predecessor.

13. An Anti-Pope proclaimed.—Henry left him and returned to Italy to pursue the pope. He named Guibert of Ravenna anti-pope with the title of Clement III. He strove to obtain possession of the person of the pontiff. The heroic Countess Matilda roused the north of Italy to resistance. The Roman princes gathered around the walls of Rome and Robert Guiscard came to assist the Sovereign Pontiff. Henry with his anti-pope laid siege to the city in the spring of 1081, but for three years the besieged, aided by the diversions of Matilda, withstood all assaults.

14. Robert Guiscard in Rome.—Bribery won what arms could not achieve, and the people, weary of the long siege, opened the city to the Germans. Guibert was enthroned at St. Peter's and placed the imperial crown on Henry's head. Gregory had retired to the castle of San Angelo, and Robert Guiscard was hastening to his aid. Henry fled before Robert, leaving Rome to the mercy of the Norman. Robert entered, took vengeance on the treacherous inhabitants, and reinstated the pope. Sentence of excommunication was pronounced against the anti-pope and all his adherents, and the supremacy of the spiritual over the temporal was proclaimed.

15. Death of St. Gregory VII.—Gregory's mission was now completed. The Romans attributed to him their recent misfortunes, so he withdrew with Robert Guiscard to Monte Cassino, thence to Salerno. There, summoning

Tell of the struggle in Germany. 13. What course did Henry pursue? Who were the pope's allies? 14. What occurred in Rome? Who came to the pope's rescue?

the cardinals, bishops, and clerics about him, he commanded them in the name of God to acknowledge as lawful pope none not elected and consecrated according to the canonical laws of the Church. Then, after a pause, he added: "I have loved justice and hated iniquity, therefore I die in exile." These were the last words of this great pontiff, reformer, and saint (May 25, 1085).

16. Gregory's Heirs.—Gregory's work did not perish with him. After a year of hesitation Desiderius, abbot of Monte Cassino, whom Gregory had designated, accepted the election under the title of Victor III. After him came Otho, Bishop of Ostia, who held out for six months, but finally ascended the papal throne as Urban II. Clement, the anti-pope, ruled in Rome. Italy and Germany were convulsed with strife. The kings were wavering in their allegiance, but Urban stood firm. In the councils of Piacenza and Clermont he declared his adhesion to the principles of Gregory VII., condemned the investitures, excommunicated Philip of France and Henry, and preached the first Crusade. The anti-pope was driven from Rome, and Urban entered in triumph. At his death, in 1099, he was succeeded by Pascal II., a choice of Gregory VII. Despite the efforts of the anti-popes, Pascal was soon acknowledged by all the faithful.

17. End of Henry IV.—At the death of Gregory, Henry seemed to triumph. For twelve years Rome was closed against the lawful popes and his enemies one by one disappeared. But misfortunes soon arose in his own family. His eldest son, Conrad, had himself proclaimed king, and for six months occupied the fairest provinces of the empire. Henry's wife denounced him before the Council of Piacenza. His noblest kinsmen deserted him to join the

15. Describe the death of Gregory VII. 16. What followed on Gregory's death? What course did Urban II. pursue? Who succeeded Urban? 17. Tell of the after-scenes in Henry's life.

Crusades. Finally a revolt of his youngest son, Henry, drove him from the kingdom. He died in exile at Liege (1106) without becoming reconciled to the Church.

18. Henry V. (1106-1125).—Henry V. had ostensibly taken up arms in defence of the Church. Pope Pascal, who showed himself yielding to Philip I. of France and Henry I. of England, thought to be firmer with the German monarch. He required him absolutely to renounce the investitures. Henry refused and prepared to march on Rome. The pope advanced to Sutri to meet him, and there said he was ready to restore him all the ecclesiastical briefs of Germany and Italy, provided he would for ever renounce the investitures. These proposals Henry accepted.

19. The agreement was so distasteful to the clergy that the pope retracted. Thereupon the king, despite the resistance of the Romans, seized the pope, cast him into prison, and by dint of cruelty compelled him to sign a new compromise which partially conceded the king's demands. The pope was then restored to liberty and crowned Henry emperor (1111). Pascal had promised not to excommunicate the prince; not so the French and German bishops, who denounced him in the councils of Vienne and Cologne.

20. Concordat of Worms (1122).—The pope's decree of 1111 created much discussion among the theologians. Henry rejected all other arrangements and entered Italy to secure the possessions of the Countess Matilda, recently deceased. Pascal fled from Rome, but was brought back by the Normans and died soon after (1118). His successor, Gelasius II., was also compelled to flee, and died at Cluny after a few months' pontificate. Guy of Burgundy, Archbishop of Vienne, was next elected under title of Calixtus II. Calixtus made moderate proposals to the emperor at

18. How did Henry V. act towards the pope? What agreement was made? 19. By whom and why was the agreement withdrawn? 20. What action did Henry take?

Rheims, which were rejected, Henry having just created an anti-pope. But threatened with excommunication, and seeing Germany in commotion, he consented to meet the diet at Worms (1122). There he renounced the investiture, granted full liberty of elections, and promised to restore to the Church all her possessions, the pope granting some minor concessions.

21. Ninth Œcumenical Council (1123).—In the following year was convoked an œcumenical council in the Lateran basilica, where the Concordat of Worms was approved of, the restoration of discipline arranged, and the state of the Christians in Spain and the East considered. This was the Ninth Œcumenical Council, and the first held in the West (1123). Two years later Henry died childless, and Lothaire II. (1125-1137), a pious prince, was elected in his place. He made no use of the privileges which the Concordat had granted him.

SECTION II. The Popes and the Hohenstaufens (1137-1272).

22. Origin of Italian Republics.—It had been conceded by the Concordat of Worms that the ecclesiastical elections should take place in presence of the emperor or his representative, with power of deciding in case of doubt. Lothaire refused to exercise this privilege. Disputed elections, however, sometimes occurred, which in Germany were settled by the emperor's known desire; but in Burgundy and Italy this decision did not avail. The citizens in Italy especially revolted against the temporal dominion of the bishops and the harsh power of the nobles. In accordance with public demand consuls, elected by the citizens, were appointed to govern the city; and the *carroccio*, or car surmounted by altar, cross, and standards,

What was done at Worms? 21. What was considered at the Ninth Œcumenical Council? How did Lothaire use his privileges? 22. What troubles arose in Italy? What was the *carroccio*?

around which the people rallied to prepare for war, began to come into use. Thus arose the Italian republics.

23. Troubles in Rome.—The movement spread to Rome itself, and the constant assaults upon the popes gave it color and substance. At the death of Calixtus II. (1124) there occurred a double election; but one of the elect renounced his claim, and thus schism was averted. At the death of Honorius II. (1130) a disputed election wrought a schism lasting eight years. The anti-Pope Anacletus conferred the title of king on Roger of Sicily, and so won his support. The pope, Innocent II., was forced to fly to France, where St. Bernard pleaded and won his cause. But not till the death of Anacletus was he able to maintain himself at Rome, though brought back in triumph. He then (1139) convoked the Tenth Œcumenical Council (the second Lateran) to complete ecclesiastical reform, condemn the schism of Anacletus, and anathematize certain heretics, among them Arnold of Brescia.

24. Arnold of Brescia.—Arnold, a monk and disciple of the famous Abelard, taught that no cleric, from the pope down, should possess either revenue or temporal power, but attend solely to spiritual works. The doctrine found favor with the Romans in the disturbed state of the period. The return of Pope Innocent, who made peace with Roger by acknowledging him king, and the decrees of the council, compelled Arnold to fly. He took refuge in Zurich, but left a powerful political party behind him in Rome. They elected a senate, patrician, and tribunes, under whose favor Arnold returned to afflict Innocent's successors, particularly Eugene III., who was brought back to Rome by Roger. Arnold's party appealed to Conrad of Franconia to come to Rome and rule the world, the pope included.

23. Describe the difficulties attending elections. What of Innocent II.? For what was the Tenth Œcumenical Council convoked? 24. Who was Arnold of Brescia? What was his teaching and work?

25. Conrad III. (1137-1152).—The reign of Lothaire II. had been disturbed only by the claims of the family of Hohenstaufen, represented by the dukes Frederick of Suabia and Conrad of Franconia. The latter had assumed the title of king, which he relinquished at the voice of St. Bernard. In return he was elected to succeed Lothaire. The family of the Guelphs, represented by Henry the Proud, son-in-law and heir of Lothaire, held Bavaria, Saxony, and Tuscany. Conrad, on plea of the too great power of the family, took from them Saxony and Bavaria, which he gave to other vassals.

26. The Guelphs and Ghibelines.—Henry reconquered Saxony and died. His brother, Guelph of Altorf, was in command in Bavaria. Conrad approached to attack him in his headquarters at Winsberg Castle. To the royalist cry of “Waiblingen! Waiblingen!” the Winsbergers responded with “Welf! Welf!” (Guelph). Thus originated the titles Guelph and Ghibeline, which were destined to become so famous in history and acquire a new meaning on Italian soil. The castle was forced to surrender, and to end the war Conrad gave Saxony to Henry the Lion, son of Henry the Proud; but Bavaria remained in the conqueror’s hands.

27. Troubles in Italy.—This struggle and its effect on the empire, together with the departure of Conrad for the second Crusade, left Italy without German interference. On his return from the Crusade Conrad stood aloof from Italian affairs and refused to be crowned emperor. Roger of Sicily was master of southern Italy; the rest of the country was given up to anarchy. Venice, Genoa, and Pisa rose into prominence and began to make sea ventures; while Pavia headed the Ghibeline cities which still looked to Germany.

25. What troubled the reign of Lothaire II.? What of Conrad? 26. What was the origin of the Guelphs and Ghibelines? 27. How stood Italy at this time? Who ruled in southern Italy? What of northern Italy?

28. Frederick Barbarossa (1152-1190).—Conrad designated his nephew, Frederick, Duke of Suabia, as successor in place of his son, a minor. Frederick was at this time thirty and endowed with every gift worthy of a ruler. Immediately after his coronation he settled the disputed claim to the throne of Denmark. He resolved on subduing Hungary and strove to win over the Guelphs by restoring Bavaria to Henry the Lion. He next set out for Italy (1154) to resume the German suzerainty. The cities that revolted he took and sacked. Receiving the iron crown at Pavia, he went to Rome, where Adrian IV. (Nicholas Breakspere, the only Englishman that has sat in the chair of Peter) was pope.

29. Revolt in Italy.—The Romans set the pope's temporal authority at naught. Arnold, their inspirer, was excommunicated, and, escaping from Rome, fell into Frederick's hands. Frederick had him strangled and his body burnt in presence of the people. The Romans then sought to win large concessions from Frederick. He laughed at their pretensions, and, paying homage to the pope, was crowned by him emperor in St. Peter's (June 18, 1155). A revolt arose that only resulted in a massacre of the populace. As he passed northwards from Rome Frederick severely punished all revolt, and, returning to Germany, bent all to his will.

30. Fall of Milan.—Frederick could brook no opposition. Irritated at some expressions of the pope, he again entered Italy (1158) to chastise Milan, which had revolted, and William I., heir of Roger of Sicily, who had repelled the Greeks, allies of Frederick. After a brave resistance Milan was compelled to surrender. Its fortifications were destroyed and people exiled. A diet was held at Roncag-

28. Who succeeded Conrad? How did Frederick begin his reign? 29. What befell Arnold of Brescia? How did Frederick treat the Romans? 30. Describe the siege of Milan.

lia and a new constitution drawn up, which placed the entire government of northern Italy in the hands of Frederick. Even Church property was taxed by him, and Tuscany, which had been left by Matilda to the Holy See, was bestowed on Guelph. The emperor was about to be excommunicated when Adrian died (September 1, 1159).

31. Alexander III. (1159-1181) and the Lombard League.

—Frederick's exactions roused the Lombard cities, and the emperor cruelly retaliated. The struggle was waged on both sides with extreme fury. Cardinal Roland was elected, under the name of Alexander III., to succeed Adrian. The emperor favored Octavian (Victor IV.), who had a minority of votes, and acknowledged him as pope. Alexander III. fled to France for refuge; and henceforth Frederick's glory began to wane.

32. Frederick's Decline.—He was soon called back to Italy, which had revolted against his tyrannical commissaries. The anti-pope died and Alexander entered Rome. Frederick marched on Rome and took it, but Alexander escaped to Benevento. The emperor's troops were decimated by a pestilence, while in his rear rose up fifteen Lombard cities pledged to defend their liberties, rebuild Milan, and uphold Alexander. Frederick in despair fled northward with a handful of men and narrowly escaped capture (1168). The Lombard League grew and built the city of Alessandria in honor of the pope. The emperor raised a new army and returned to wreak vengeance on the League. The campaign ended in a total defeat of his troops at the battle of Legnano (May 29, 1176), on the very day that his galleys were captured by the Venetians.

33. Treaty of Venice (1177); Eleventh Œcumenical Council (1179) and Peace of Constance (1183).—Frederick had

What took place at Roncaglia? 31. What of the Lombard cities? Tell of the rupture between Frederick and the pope. 32. How fared Frederick in Italy? Describe his struggle with the Lombard League.

to sue for peace, which was concluded at Venice. The pope and emperor became reconciled, and the anti-pope received an abbey; William I. was received into the treaty, and the Lombard cities were granted peace. The Romans besought the pope to return, and Alexander made a triumphal entry into the city. In the Lateran basilica he convoked (March, 1179) the Eleventh Œcumenical Council, which enjoined that a two-thirds vote constituted a lawful election of the pope.

34. The Diet of Constance.—Henry the Lion had withdrawn with his vassals from Italy during Frederick's disastrous campaign. Frederick now declared him a felon and deprived him of Saxony and Bavaria. The inheritance of the house of Guelph was divided up into twenty petty principalities holding immediately from the crown. At the diet of Constance (June 25, 1183) Frederick acknowledged the independence of the Lombard cities, maintaining a show of allegiance. Thenceforth the Italian republics chose their own government, the few cities that still adhered to the emperor constituting the Ghibeline party in Italy. The others were called the Guelph party from their opposition to the imperial power.

35. Death of Frederick Barbarossa.—Henry, Frederick's eldest son by his marriage with Constance, daughter of Roger II. and heiress to all the Norman possessions in southern Italy, became master of these. Thus the Papacy was threatened by the Hohenstaufens north and south. At this time Saladin was menacing Jerusalem, and, at the call of the pope, Frederick assumed the cross, though then sixty-eight. After penetrating Asia Minor and gaining many victories he was drowned in the Cydnus (June 10, 1190).

33. Tell of the treaty of Venice. What was enacted at the Eleventh Œcumenical Council? 34. What was arranged at the diet of Constance? What followed the diet? 35. How and where did Frederick die?

36. Claimants to the Empire (1190-1216).—Frederick left Germany to his son, Henry VI. (1190-1197), who treacherously imprisoned Richard Cœur de Lion, and with his ransom fitted out an expedition against Sicily. His cruelty rendered him odious to every one, and he died suddenly (1197), leaving Sicily to his son, then three years old, who had been named King of the Romans. The education of the boy was entrusted to the pope, Innocent III.

37. The popes were averse to the union of the crowns of Germany and Sicily. Henry VI. at his coronation consented to their separation. At his death the German electors agreed to choose a prince of their own. The votes were divided between the Guelph Otho of Brunswick, son of Henry the Lion, and the Ghibeline Philip of Hohenstaufen, Duke of Suabia and brother of Henry VI. Innocent favored Otho, and Philip was assassinated (1208). The votes of all then fell to Otho, who was crowned emperor by the pope (1209).

38. Otho IV.—The emperor hastened to break all his promises. He fomented disturbances at Rome and strove to win Sicily from Frederick. He was excommunicated (1211). His nobles fell away from him and turned to the young Frederick. The only ally of the emperor was John of England. After vainly striving to stem the current he retired into private life and died reconciled to the Church (1218).

39. Frederick was solemnly crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle, after confirming in the diet of Egra the Church's prerogatives. He was guided in all things by Pope Innocent up to the death of the latter (1216).

40. Frederick II. (1212-1250) and Honorius III. (1216-1227).—With the death of the pope came a change in

36. To whom did Frederick leave the empire, and with what results? 37. What followed the death of Henry VI.? 38. Describe the reign of Otho IV. 39. How did Frederick II. begin his reign?

Frederick. He gave way wholly to personal ambition. He abandoned his promises and engagements, and the loss of Damietta (1219) to the Christians was chiefly owing to his broken pledges. He was ambitious less for the cross than for the extension of his own dominion over Italy and Germany. He deceived the pope, Honorius III., while he secretly incited his subjects to rebel. He caused his son Henry to be elected king of the Romans, in violation of the agreement entered into with Frederick Barbarossa. The pope, believing his solemn promises of loyalty to the Holy See and to former treaties, crowned him emperor (1220).

41. Notwithstanding his oft-repeated promise and solemn vow to join the Crusades, Frederick found reasons to remain at home and secure his grasp on Sicily by joining hands with the Saracens who still infested the island. The pope died (1227) while Frederick, instead of going to the Crusades, was contemplating the restoration of the German power over the Lombard cities. The cities rose up and Frederick's troops were driven out.

42. Gregory IX.—Gregory IX. succeeded Innocent. Though a very old man, he saw through the ambitious schemes of Frederick and exposed them. The pope, however, stood by the king and did his best to maintain peace in Germany. Frederick, true to himself, responded by getting Pietro delle Vigne to collect the laws of Sicily so as to justify Cæsarism.

43. Frederick II. in Italy.—In Germany Prince Henry had revolted and the emperor set Conrad IV. up in his place. Entering Italy, he made war on the Lombard cities, destroying Vicenza and Mantua, beating the Milanese, and invading all the liberties of the League. The pope, aided by the Genoese and Venetians, declared against

40. How did Frederick change? What was his character? 41. What was Frederick's policy? How did he fare in Italy? 42. What of Gregory IX. and Frederick? 43. Tell of Frederick and the Lombard League.

him, and, on the emperor's appointing his natural son Enzo king of Sardinia, excommunicated him and released his subjects from their allegiance. There was now open war between the pope and the emperor. Frederick, aided by the Saracens, laid waste the Campagna and besieged Rome. The pope preached a crusade against him and convoked a council. Frederick was driven back by the crusaders, but imprisoned the bishops on their way to the council. The pope, worn out by his years and infirmities, died at the age of ninety-eight (1241).

44. Frederick and Innocent IV. (1243-1254).—The emperor held fast to the imprisoned bishops and cardinals. His permission was needed to elect a new pope, Celestine IV., who died eighteen days after his election and had no successor for seventeen months. Finally Sinibaldo de' Fieschi, a close friend of Frederick's, was elected, and chose the name of Innocent IV. "Fieschi was my friend," said Frederick, "but Innocent will be my enemy." He was right. The pope cited Frederick before a council. Frederick marched on Rome, destroying everything in his way. The pope escaped by the Genoese fleet and went to Lyons, where he assembled the Thirteenth General Council (1245). Innocent laid the condition of Europe and of the East before the council, where Pietro delle Vigne and Thaddeus of Suessa had been sent to plead Frederick's cause. Frederick was excommunicated and degraded.

45. Death of Frederick II.—On hearing the news he put on his crown, exclaiming: "Torrents of blood shall flow ere it falls from my head." Aided always by his faithful Saracens, he began by committing great atrocities among the Guelphs of Romagna and Tuscany. Eccelino and Enzo stood for him in Lombardy, and Conrad in

What action did the pope take? How did Frederick retaliate? 44. Tell what happened on the death of Gregory IX. What took place at the Council of Lyons? 45. Describe Frederick's last campaign.

Germany. The Germans proclaimed Henry Raspon, Landgrave of Thuringia, and, on his death, William, Count of Holland. Enzo was taken by the Bolognese; and Frederick, beaten at Parma, sued for peace. He died soon after in retirement (1250).

46. End of the Hohenstaufens (1250-1272).—Conrad, forced to quit Germany by William of Holland, claimed his hereditary kingdom of Sicily, which was contested by Manfred, natural son of Frederick II. He won his throne, but died at the age of twenty-six, leaving an infant son, Conradin. Manfred seized upon the government, crushed the Guelphs at Florence, and defied the pope, Alexander IV. The cruel Eccelino, at the head of the Ghibelines, still raged in the north. A crusade was preached against him, and he died of wounds received in battle.

47. Charles of Anjou.—The Lombard cities freed themselves, but the Two Sicilies remained under the yoke. Pope Urban IV. called to his aid Charles of Anjou, Count of Provence and brother of St. Louis of France. He entered Rome despite Manfred's opposition, and was crowned by the pope. He defeated and slew Manfred at Benevento (1266), thus securing his new kingdom. Conradin remained in Bavaria under the care of his mother and in the midst of a brilliant circle of warriors and men of letters. Charles proved a harsh ruler, and the people turned to the young prince, who was then only fifteen. He entered Italy, but his army was easily defeated by Charles, and the prince himself perished on the scaffold, thus ending the house of Hohenstaufen (1268).

48. Interregnum in Germany.—With the death of Frederick II. followed the interregnum of the empire (1250-1272). For twenty-two years there was really no gene-

46. What befell Conrad and his kingdom? Describe events in the north of Italy. 47. Whom did the pope call in? With what result? How did the Hohenstaufens end? 48. What followed the death of Frederick II.?

rally acknowledged emperor. The great vassals exercised all royal rights in their domains. The petty vassals claimed to pay homage only to the nominal suzerainty of the crown. Many cities secured their freedom and made leagues among themselves, as in the Hanseatic League and free cities of the Rhine, for commerce and mutual protection. The struggle between the empire and the Church thus ended in the dissolution of the empire.

CHAPTER II.

THE CRUSADES IN THE EAST.

FROM 1095 to 1270 eight military expeditions were undertaken against the Mussulmans at the appeal of the popes. Their object was to recover the holy places and rescue the Christians in the East.

SECTION I. First Crusade (1095-1099).

1. Objects of the Crusades.—The scenes of our Lord's life and suffering on earth were natural objects of veneration and pilgrimage to Christians. The cross on which Christ died and the Holy Sepulchre were discovered by St. Helena, mother of Constantine the Great (326). In 638 Jerusalem fell into the hands of the Mussulmans. This was a great shock to Christendom. The persecution of the Christians by the caliph Hakem (996-1021) roused Pope Sylvester II. to preach the first Crusade.

2. The Seljukian Turks.—In the latter half of the eleventh century the Mussulmans, holding the African coast, menaced Christendom on the south, and were especially formidable in the East. The Gaznevites were crushed by the Tartars from Turkistan. Their chief was Togrul-Beg, a

Describe the interregnum in Germany and its results. How many Crusades were there, and what was their object? 1. Who and what originated the Crusades? 2. By whom was Christendom threatened in the eleventh century?

grandson of Seljuk. At the call of the Abbasside caliphs he entered Bagdad and overthrew the Buides. For this he was awarded by the caliph the temporal sovereignty of all the Mussulman states (1058). The Abbasside caliphs thenceforth exercised, as successors of Mohammed, only spiritual authority.

3. Seljukian Conquests—The Seljukian sultans became great conquerors. Armenia and Georgia were taken from the Greeks by Alp-Arslan (Strong Lion), Togrul-Beg's nephew and successor. The Emperor Romanus IV. was defeated and captured by him (1071), and only released on payment of a great ransom and promise of an annual tribute. Malek-Shah (1072-1092), eldest son of Alp, extended the boundaries of his empire to China and the Indus. All Asia Minor, save Trebizond, was wrested from the Greeks, and Cairo, Syria, and Palestine from the Fatimites. At Malek's death his empire was divided up into the sultanates of Damascus, Aleppo, Persia, and Iconium. The sultan of Iconium possessed all Asia Minor and encamped within sight of Constantinople. The others were less powerful, and in 1094 the Fatimites of Cairo recaptured Jerusalem, which they held to the coming of the Crusaders.

4. The Old Man of the Mountain and his Assassins.—Hassan, chamberlain to Malek-Shah, having fallen into disgrace, fled to Egypt. There, adopting the Fatimite maxim that "nothing is true and everything lawful," he started a secret society and chose as his headquarters the fortress of Alamout, in the Persian mountains (1090). He was known as the Sheikh-al-Jabal, or Old Man of the Mountain. His rule was absolute with his followers, who were styled Assassins. Whatever he bade them do they

Tell of Togrul-Beg and his exploits. 3. Tell of Alp-Arslan and Malek-Shah. What followed on the death of Malek? 4. Who was the Old Man of the Mountain, and what did he establish?

did, even at the sacrifice of life. He became so powerful that Malek himself fell a victim to his orders; and a son who thought to avenge the sultan was glad to compromise with Hassan. The sect was exterminated in the thirteenth century by the Mongols in Persia and by the Mamelukes in Syria.

5. The Comnenus Dynasty.—The soldiers of the Eastern Empire set the family of Comnenus on the throne after the schism of Michael Cerularius (1057). The Seljukian Turks advanced against the weakening empire as far as the shores of the Bosphorus. The Greeks were at the same time driven out of southern Italy by Robert Guiscard, who also threatened Constantinople. The Hungarians and Tartars ravaged along the right bank of the Danube, and the Greeks were squabbling at home.

6. Alexis Comnenus was an able commander, but found himself penniless and defenceless when the Turks threatened his capital (1095). He appealed for aid to the Christians of the West, and his appeal decided the first Crusade. But, with Greek duplicity, he played with both parties, Christians and Turks. In this he was followed by his successors, and the end was fatal to the empire.

7. Peter the Hermit; Urban II.; Council of Clermont.—A French priest named Peter, a pilgrim to the holy places, fired at the indignities he witnessed in Jerusalem, went to Pope Urban II., described the scenes to him, and obtained permission to preach through Europe the sad condition of the Holy Land. Barefoot, girt with a rope, and crucifix in hand, the holy hermit travelled through the greater part of Europe, moving all hearts by his eloquence. A preparatory council was called by the pope at Piacenza, and a more solemn one at Clermont, two hundred and thirty-

5. What of the Comnenus family? By what foes was the Eastern Empire threatened? 6. What was the appeal and character of Alexis Comnenus? 7. Who was commissioned to preach the first Crusade?

nine prelates attending. Thousands of nobles and multitudes of people encamped around the city. On the seventh day the pope addressed the multitude, and at once went up the cry, "God wills it!" They pledged themselves to go to the rescue of the Holy Land, and, as a mark of their vow, wore a cross of red fastened to the right shoulder. Hence the name Crusader and the Crusades.

8. First Crusade.—From all Christian lands came the Crusaders. Peter and Walter the Penniless, a Burgundian knight, followed by a hundred thousand men, set out for the Holy Land. It was a rabble rather than an army, and melted away on the route (1096). A regular army followed under various leaders, chief of whom was the gallant Duke Godfrey of Bouillon, Lower Lorraine. Alexis Comnenus was alarmed at the multitude of warriors. He induced the Crusaders to swear fealty to himself and promise to give over to him the cities that had once belonged to the empire.

9. Capture of Antioch.—Six hundred thousand men, one-sixth of whom were knights, encamped on the plains of Nicæa, the capital of Iconium. The sultan abandoned his city, which was taken by the Greeks. At Dorylæum, in Phrygia, he fell upon a division of the Christian army and would have destroyed it had not Godfrey arrived to the rescue. But the Turks harassed the Crusaders on their weary march across the plains of Asia Minor. Rivalries broke out among the Christian leaders, and Baldwin of Flanders, brother of Godfrey, withdrew with his division to conquer Edessa, in Mesopotamia (1097). The others entered Syria and besieged Antioch. After eight months Bohemond of Tarentum succeeded in entering

Describe the scene at the Council of Clermont. 8. What befell the first expedition? Who was chief in command? 9. Describe the opening campaign. Who captured Antioch?

and capturing the fortress deemed impregnable, for which exploit he was made Prince of Antioch (1098).

10. Kerboga, Sultan of Mosul, came to the rescue at the head of three hundred thousand men, and the conquerors found themselves besieged. Famine and disease set in, and the Christians were on the verge of despair when the enthusiasm of Peter Bartholomew, a priest of Marseilles, so roused them that they fell upon the infidels, destroyed them, and opened Palestine to the cross.

11. Capture of Jerusalem.—There were now left only fifty thousand Crusaders capable of bearing arms. These advanced on the holy city of Jerusalem. They were repulsed, but after a five weeks' siege Godfrey took the city by storm (July 15, 1099). Godfrey was made King of Jerusalem, and his kingdom was divided into five great fiefs, which again were subdivided, Jerusalem holding the seigniory. The caliph of Cairo came to the rescue of the Seljukians, but was defeated near Ascalon (1100). Godfrey died soon after, and was succeeded by his brother Baldwin (1100-1118). New conquests were added, and Baldwin II. (1118-1131) extended the kingdom from Ascalon to Mount Taurus.

12. Knights Hospitalers and Templars.—To secure the country a permanent militia was organized of men who took religious vows as well as the soldier's oath. They were a sort of lay monks. The Knights Hospitalers got their title from the Hospital of St. John the Baptist founded in Jerusalem for sick prisoners (1100). A variety of these orders soon sprang up, some of whom became very famous in history. All pledged themselves to accomplish some special work in defence of the holy places or of people journeying thither.

10. How was Antioch saved? 11. How was Jerusalem taken? Who was made king? Describe subsequent events. 12. Who were the Knights Hospitalers? Had they imitators?

13. Second Crusade (1147-1149).—Divisions arose among the Christians, and the kingdom of Jerusalem soon threatened to fall to pieces. Edessa had twice fallen, to Zenghi, the Emir of Mosul, and his son, Nureddin (1144-1146). St. Bernard was commissioned by Pope Eugenius III. to preach a new Crusade. He fired France with his eloquence, and the king, Louis, himself assumed the cross, while in Germany Conrad III. and his knights pledged themselves at the diet of Speyer.

14. Greek Treachery.—Conrad's expedition failed through lack of discipline and the treachery of the Greeks, who in all the Crusades were never moved by a higher motive than their own profit and advantage. The wreck of his forces met the advancing army of the French. These followed the coast line as far as Ephesus, when Louis, abandoning the coast, turned inward up the valley of the Meander. His bravery only saved his army from complete destruction.

15. Failure of the Second Crusade.—Louis and Conrad, joining their forces with those of Baldwin III., King of Jerusalem, laid siege to Damascus, but, owing to treachery and bribery in their own body, failed to take it. King Louis, after the loss of his army, on his way back to France fell into the hands of Greek pirates and was only restored to liberty at the intervention of King Roger of Sicily. St. Bernard, being held responsible for these disasters, replied that the Crusaders and Eastern Christians had drawn God's wrath on them by their own disorders.

16. Saladin.—Saladin, one of Nureddin's generals, succeeded him in 1173. He reunited Egypt to Syria. He proved a very able sultan, and became founder of the new dynasty of the Ayubites, so called after his father. At

the bloody contested battle of Tiberias (1187) he defeated the Crusaders, slew Reginald, Prince of Antioch, captured Guy, King of Jerusalem, and the relic of the true cross, and ordered the massacre of all the Templars and Hospitalers taken. Jerusalem was again lost to the Christians. Pope Urban III. died of grief. His successor, Clement III., ordered William, Archbishop of Tyre, to preach a new Crusade. Only soldiers were this time enlisted. Those who remained behind assisted by contributing a tithe, called Saladin's, to defray the cost of the war. Frederick Barbarossa, Philip of France, and Richard I. of England took the cross (1189).

17. Third Crusade.—The monarchs were to have united their forces. Frederick descended the Danube and foiled the treachery of the Greeks. He defeated the Sultan of Iconium in two engagements, took his capital, and traversed Asia Minor. His death in the Calycadnus was a great blow to the cause. His son Frederick led the broken forces back to Palestine, where he joined Guy, the liberated King of Jerusalem, and laid siege to Acre.

18. Richard I. in the Holy Land.—Philip of France and Richard of England, who should have joined them, were delayed all winter off Sicily. In addition they quarrelled. Richard, who was affianced to Philip's sister, broke off the engagement and married Berengaria of Navarre at Cyprus (1191). Philip, angered, set sail without him. Richard, storm-driven on Cyprus, took it from the Greeks and sold it to Guy, who, with the loss of Jerusalem, had relinquished his title of king. Richard then hastened to Acre, and his prowess and courage gave a new heart to the Christians. Saladin called on all the Saracens to join in the holy war. Acre fell by assault, but in the hour of

What happened at Tiberias? Who now took the cross? 17. How did the third Crusade open? 18. What differences arose between Philip and Richard? Tell of Richard's exploits in the East.

victory the Christian leaders quarrelled, and an open rupture was with difficulty prevented between Richard and the Duke of Austria.

19. Return of Richard.—Richard remained in Palestine two years and performed prodigies of valor. His name became a terror to the Saracens. He wrested from them all the cities of the coast, and compelled Saladin to sign a treaty by which the Christians were secured in possession of the coast between Tyre and Jaffa (Joppa), with liberty to visit the holy places free of tribute. Jerusalem, however, remained in Moslem hands. Disturbances in England recalled him before he could capture it. On his way back he fell into the hands of his enemy, Leopold of Austria, who surrendered him to Henry VI., and it was only at the solicitation of the pope and the Emperor of Germany that he was at last released and his ransom reduced (1194). During his imprisonment occurred the death of Saladin.

20. Fourth Crusade (1202-1204).—Saladin's empire was divided among his sons. Dissensions rent it until his brother, Malek-el-Adel, secured whole mastery and proclaimed his intention of driving out the Christians. Pope Innocent III. commissioned Fulk of Neuilly to preach a new Crusade. A number of experienced commanders assumed the cross, and the Crusaders soon numbered four thousand knights and twenty thousand men-at-arms. They made for Egypt, which was the key of Palestine, but were stayed by the greed of the Venetians, who were to furnish the galleys. They received Zara, which the Crusaders took, by way of compensation.

21. Constantinople taken by the Crusaders.—The Crusaders, in spite of the protests of Innocent III., turned

19. What treaty did Richard force on Saladin? What befell Richard on his return? 20. What happened on the death of Saladin? How did the fourth Crusade open? 21. What befell Constantinople?

their arms against Constantinople, which, almost defenceless, was easily taken (1203). Alexis, son of Isaac Angelus, the aged Emperor of the East, was placed upon the throne, whence his father had been driven by a usurper. Alexis was soon deposed and strangled, and succeeded by Ducas Murzuphlus, one of his officers, who assumed the title of Alexis V. The Crusaders, who had not been paid the sum stipulated for their services, again besieged Constantinople and pillaged it. Murzuphlus was slain (1204).

22. Destruction of the Greek Empire.—The Greek Empire was then divided among the Crusaders. Baldwin of Flanders was chosen emperor and allotted a fourth of the empire. The rest was divided between the Venetians and the Crusaders. The new empire lasted fifty-seven years. The Bulgarians first assailed it and took Baldwin prisoner at Adrianople (1205). He died in captivity. The Greeks, out of what was left to them, founded the principality of Epirus, or Albania, and the empires of Nicæa and Trebizond. Baldwin's successors were soon confined to their capital. The Greeks were constantly undermining the structure raised by the Crusaders, and Baldwin II. was finally driven from Constantinople by Michael Palæologus, Emperor of Nicæa, who founded a new Greek Empire that lasted one hundred and ninety-two years (1261-1453).

SECTION II. The Children's Crusade (1212); Fifth Crusade (1217-1221).

23. Disastrous Expeditions.—The failure of the Crusades was attributed to the wickedness of the Crusaders, and an idea got abroad that the Holy Sepulchre could only be regained by innocent hands. With this originated a Crusade of children to the number of fifty thou-

What followed the capture of Constantinople? 22. What became of the Greek Empire? What became of the new empire? Tell of Michael Palæologus and his work. 23. Tell of the Children's Crusade.

sand, who set out for Palestine (1212), only to perish on the route or fall into the hands of the Saracens on their arrival in the country. Innocent III., in the Lateran Council, appealed for a new Crusade (1215). Frederick II., Emperor of Germany, promised to lead it, but broke his promise. Andrew II., King of Hungary, then took command, but was foiled in his first attack on Mount Thabor. He withdrew disheartened and returned to Europe.

24. John of Brienne.—John of Brienne, titular King of Jerusalem, took his place, entered Egypt, and after a two years' siege took Damietta (1218-1219). The Sultan of Egypt then agreed to surrender Jerusalem and pay tribute. The offer was refused and the Crusaders advanced on Cairo, but were checked and the army threatened with destruction by the overflow of the Nile. Then John went alone to the sultan's tent and appealed to him to save them. The appeal was generously responded to, peace was concluded, and the Crusaders were allowed to depart on condition of surrendering Damietta and maintaining peace for eight years.

25. Sixth Crusade (1228).—John pledged himself never again to bear arms against the infidels, and ceded to Frederick II., his son-in-law, the title of King of Jerusalem. The emperor dallied at home, however, and it was only after his excommunication by Gregory IX. that he prepared to depart. On landing at Acre he began to negotiate. The Sultan of Egypt agreed to cede to him Bethlehem, Nazareth, Tyre, and Sidon on condition that the Mussulmans should have liberty of worship there. On entering Jerusalem no bishop would crown an excommunicated prince, so he crowned himself and hastened back to Europe.

How did the fifth Crusade open? 24. What of John of Brienne? How was peace concluded? 25. Tell of the sixth Crusade and the part played by Frederick II.

SECTION III. The Two Crusades of St. Louis.

26. Seventh Crusade.—The hordes driven out of Turkistan by the Mongols fell upon Palestine and captured Jerusalem. Pope Innocent IV., then presiding at the Council of Lyons, himself preached a new Crusade (1248-1254). Louis IX. of France was the only king who responded. After four years of preparation he set out at the head of an army of forty-five thousand men. He took Damietta (1249), and remained there five months. The delay produced a lack of discipline and an epidemic attacked the troops. He marched on Cairo, but the Saracens fought the ground inch by inch. The rashness of the Count of Artois, brother of the king, converted a victory into a disastrous defeat at Mansurah, where the flower of the Christian knights were destroyed (1250). Retreat was determined on, but the way back was now closed, and the king and his two brothers were taken prisoners. Louis was finally released at a ransom of four hundred thousand livres for his fellow-captives and the city of Damietta for himself.

27. Death of St. Louis.—He then sailed for Palestine and renewed his efforts on behalf of the Christians. He left the country in 1254 on learning of the death of his pious and great mother, Blanche of Castile, who had carried on the regency during his absence. He still contemplated a new Crusade. Acre was the only city in Palestine left to the Christians. His brother, Charles of Anjou, had become master of the Two Sicilies, and represented that the Bey of Tunis was willing to receive baptism if a Christian army landed in his dominions. Louis again set sail, only to find he had been deceived.

26. Who preached and who led the seventh Crusade? What success attended the Crusade? How did it end? 27. Why did St. Louis return to France? What new enterprise did he undertake? What befell St. Louis in Tunis?

Tunis was bravely defended against him and his camp was invaded by pestilence, to which Louis himself fell a victim and ended a holy life by a holy death (1270). His successor, Philip III., concluded an honorable truce. The Bey of Tunis agreed to defray the costs of the war, to set his Christian captives free and grant free Christian worship through all his dominions. Thus ended the last Crusade, and twenty years later (1291) Acre was lost to the Christians.

28. Results of the Crusades.—The Crusades, though they resulted in disaster to the Christian arms, opened up commerce between Europe and the East. Hitherto the Arabs had controlled the Eastern trade. It now passed into the hands of the seaboard cities of Italy and France. Venice, Genoa, Pisa, and Marseilles were enriched by the traffic in gold, silk, ivory, perfumes, etc., and trade spread from them to other cities. From the Tyrians Venice learnt how to make glass; and the Crusaders brought back with them the windmill. The Crusades also served to bring the European nations into closer connection with one another; and it was no small thing to see them all knit together in a great Christian cause. Art and literature felt the new movement and were benefited by it.

CHAPTER III.

THE CRUSADES IN EUROPE.

SECTION I. Crusades against the Moors in Spain.

1. Alfonso VI.—The war of the Spaniards against the Moors lasted nearly eight centuries (711-1492). It would have ended much earlier were it not for the divisions of

How and by whom was the Crusade ended? 28. What effect had the Crusades on Europe? What commercial changes did they introduce? 1. How long did the struggle last between the Spaniards and the Moors?

the Christians among themselves. Alfonso VI., son of Ferdinand the Great of Castile, won Toledo by the aid of the Cid after a five years' siege (1085), and made it his capital. The Moors begged aid from the African Mussulmans, who made three separate invasions under the name of Almoravides, Almohades, and Merinides.

2. The Almoravides.—Yusuf, chief of the Almoravides and founder of Morocco (1070), responded to the call of the Spanish Moors and routed Alfonso VI. at Zelaca (1086). He sent the heads of forty thousand Christians to the cities of his empire as trophies. He made himself master of Moorish Spain. In 1094 Henry of Burgundy conquered the country of Portugal, which he took from the Moors. The Cid in the same year took Valencia, which he held till his death (1099). But a great disaster befell the Christian arms in 1108, when Sancho, a boy of eleven, son of Alfonso VI., headed the Castilians. His defeat and death hastened the death of his father.

3. The Kingdom of Portugal (1094-1139).—French knights had responded to the call of Alfonso VI. To two princes of the house of Burgundy, Raymond and Henry, he gave two of his daughters in marriage. As his wife's dower Henry received part of the land now known as Portugal, which was made a county under the suzerainty of Castile (1094). Henry won seventeen battles over the Mussulmans. Alfonso I. (1112-1185), his son and successor, pushed the limits of his domain beyond the Tagus. After a great victory over five Moorish kings (1139) his soldiers greeted him with the title of king. The Cortes, or assembly, confirmed the title and made it hereditary. He made Lisbon, which he won from the Moors, his capital (1147).

What of Alfonso VI.? Whom did the Moors call in? 2. What of Yusuf and his achievements? What about Portugal? How did Alfonso's reign end? 3. How came Portugal to be made a kingdom?

4. Alfonso I.—Alfonso VI. of Castile left the crown to his eldest daughter, Urraca, widow of Raymond, and wife, by a second marriage, of Alfonso I., King of Navarre and Aragon. Thus to Alfonso fell all Christian Spain (1109). Urraca, separating from him (1114), governed Castile alone in the name of her son by her first marriage. Alfonso devoted himself to battling with the Moors. In 1118 he took Saragossa, which he made his capital. By the capture of Tarragona all the valley of the Ebro fell into his hands. After vanquishing the Moors in twenty-nine battles he was killed in the thirtieth and Navarre lost to Aragon.

5. Alfonso VIII.—At the death of Urraca (1126) Alfonso VIII. succeeded to the throne of Castile. He had already been proclaimed king of Leon (1112). His victories over the Moors gained for him from the Cortes the title of Emperor of Spain (1135). He pushed his dominions southward and took Calatrava and Almeria. These conquests, added to that of Lisbon, led to the invasion of the Almohades.

6. The Almohades (1146-1248).—The Almohades, or Unitarians, were a half-religious, half-military sect founded about the beginning of the twelfth century. Their avowed object was to restore the worship of one God and exterminate the Christians. One of their leaders, Abd-el-Mumen, destroyed the Almoravides and captured their city of Morocco (1146). He won Tunis and Tripoli from the Normans and extended his empire over all northern Africa as far as Egypt. He conquered Andalusia and took Granada, defeating Alfonso VIII.

7. Spanish Knights.—Alfonso had divided Castile and Leon among his two sons. The kingdoms remained independent for seventy-three years (1157-1230). These di-

4. Tell of Alfonso VI. and Urraca. What befell Alfonso? 5. What of Alfonso VIII.? Tell of his conquests. 6. Who were the Almohades and what was their policy? Tell of Abd-el-Mumen.

visions would have lost the Christian cause in Spain were it not for the founding of military orders whose chief object was to battle with the Moors. One of the most famous was that of Calatrava, founded in 1158. Each kingdom or province had its own order devoted to the same purpose. The struggle was of similar character throughout, and fortune favored now the Christians and again the Moors. At the battle of Alarcos (1195) thirty thousand Christians perished.

8. Battle of Tolosa.—Sancho VII. of Navarre joined with the Moors in order to extend his kingdom over all Christian Spain. He lost Biscay, Alava, and Guipuzcoa to Alfonso IX. of Castile. He afterwards abandoned the Moors and joined the Christians in their resistance to the great invasion under Mohammed, son of Yacub. Christendom, alarmed, sent aid to the Spaniards from all sides at the appeal of Pope Innocent III. Sancho, with Alfonso of Castile and Pedro of Aragon, beat the invaders in a great battle at Tolosa (1212).

9. Ferdinand III., the Saint.—This battle broke the Mussulman power in Spain. All the Christian kingdoms of the peninsula profited by it. Castile, the centre, became the most powerful of the kingdoms under Ferdinand III. (1217-1252), son of Alfonso of Leon. By the death of his father (1230) Ferdinand acquired Leon and united it to Castile. He took Cordova from the Moors (1235), and, after various other conquests, captured the great city of Seville (1248). Xeres, Cadiz, and other important cities followed, until the kingdom of Castile extended from the Bay of Biscay to the Straits of Gibraltar. Ferdinand was as wise a legislator as he was skilful a general. He declared the kingdom indivisible, with right

7. Tell of the military orders in Spain. 8. What of Sancho VII.? What occurred at Tolosa? 9. What resulted from the battle of Tolosa? What of Ferdinand III.? Describe Ferdinand's character.

of succession by primogeniture. He protected letters and arts, and founded the great university of Salamanca.

10. Alfonso X., the Learned.—His successor, Alfonso X. (1252-1284), was constantly at war, either quelling revolts or fighting against the Moors. At the instigation of the King of Granada the Moors rose in Andalusia and massacred the Christians (1261). But Alfonso afterwards compelled them to acknowledge his suzerainty, while James I., the Conqueror, King of Catalonia, conquered Murcia. Alfonso's ambition and intrigue led to a third invasion by the Moors and a revolt under his youngest son, Sancho, in which the father was defeated. He was a learned prince and left behind him many writings.

SECTION II. Crusade against the Albigenses (1208-1229).

11. The Albigensian Heresy.—From the East through the Crusades came the heresy of the Albigenses, so-called from the diocese of Albi, where it most prevailed. It was a mixture of Arianism and Manichæism, admitted the existence of good and evil, denied the divinity of Christ, rejected the ecclesiastical hierarchy, marriage and the other sacraments, and was mixed up with disorders that threatened the existence of Christian society. Favored by the Languedoc nobles, especially by Raymond VI., Count of Toulouse, the heresy spread rapidly in that region; the churches were deserted and the clergy exposed to outrage and contempt. St. Dominic preached against it without effect. Count Raymond was excommunicated by the legate of the Holy See, Peter of Castelnau, and the legate was assassinated by one of the count's followers. Pope Innocent III. thereupon excommunicated Raymond and

10. Tell of Alfonso X. and the chief events of his reign. 11. What was the heresy of the Albigenses and how did it originate? Who protected the heresy? Who preached against it? What action did the pope take?

ordered a crusade to be preached against the heretics. Within a few weeks fifty thousand Christian warriors responded to the call (1208).

12. Simon de Montfort.—Simon de Montfort, a hero of the fourth Crusade, took command. Raymond asked and obtained reconciliation with the Church, thereby saving his dominions. The chief cities of the Albigenses easily fell to the Crusaders. Raymond's treachery renewed a contest which would otherwise have ended. Simon gained a brilliant victory at Castelnaudary (1212). Raymond sought the aid of Pedro II. of Aragon. But another victory at Muret (1213), in which Pedro fell, decided Raymond's fate.

13. The Œcumenical Council of Lateran conferred the county of Toulouse on Simon (1215). Raymond and his son held out. In besieging Toulouse Simon was slain, and the army of the Crusaders retreated (1218). His son, Amaury, ceded his title to Louis VIII. of France. Louis captured the strong city of Avignon and soon conquered all the country up to Toulouse. Raymond was succeeded by his son, Raymond VII. The death of Louis (1226) gave him a respite, but his cause was lost. He became reconciled to the Church, and, by the treaty of Meaux, ceded Lower Languedoc to St. Louis and the county of Venaissin to the Holy See, retaining the county of Toulouse. The heresy died out soon after.

SECTION III. Crusades against the Pagans of the Baltic (1204-1237).

14. Livonia and Esthonia converted.—The north of Europe, from the Vistula to the Gulf of Finland, had remained pagan and resisted all the Christian advances. Pope Celestine III. preached a crusade against the pagan

12. Who led the Crusade? Where was Raymond defeated? 13. What befell Simon de Montfort? What followed on his death? What came of the heresy? 14. What part of Europe remained pagan?

tribes, and the cause was taken up by the Germans. Albert of Alperden, a canon of Bremen, founded Riga, of which he was made bishop (1201). He divided Livonia into fiefs and gave them to such German nobles as were strong enough to keep them. By originating the "Knights of Livonia" he organized a standing army for the defence of the country. They received a third of Livonia, and in a few years paganism was driven out. The country became a fief and principality of the German Empire. The Esthonians, who dwelt farther north, soon succumbed, and idolatry disappeared.

15. Conversion of the Prussians.—The country between the Vistula and the Niemen was occupied by the Prussians. They were a warlike and barbarous people, very stubborn to yield to the faith. They martyred their first apostle, St. Adalbert, Bishop of Prague (997). They remained pagans up to the beginning of the thirteenth century. In 1214 Christian was made first bishop of Prussia under the protection of a Polish prince of Culm. A crusade was then organized against the pagan people. The country of Culm was given to the Knights of the Teutonic Order. The struggle lasted fifty years. The Prussians were aided by the Russians and Lithuanians, who remained idolaters till the end of the fourteenth century. All Prussia became Christian in 1283.

What measures were taken to convert the north? Who were the Knights of Livonia? 15. What was the character of the Prussians? How long were they pagan? Who was their first bishop? When was Prussia converted

CHAPTER IV.

FRANCE, ENGLAND, AND IRELAND.

SECTION I. Progress of Royalty in France; Philip I. (1060-1108).

1. **Rivalry of France and England.**—Philip I., son of Henry I., ascended the French throne at the age of seven and reigned forty-eight years. He was indolent and intriguing, and only waged one war in person to secure Flanders to the grandson of his uncle and guardian, Baldwin, Count of Flanders; and in this he was beaten at Cassel (1071). Under him began the rivalry with England which led to the wars between that country and France. He was jealous of his powerful vassal, William, Duke of Normandy, who had gained the English throne. He was a party to all the plots and revolts against William's power in his Norman domains. A coarse jest of his led to William's last invasion, when he burnt Mantes and met his death there (1087). Rid of him, Philip embroiled himself in ecclesiastical troubles, but finally died reconciled to the Church.

2. **Louis VI. (1108-1137).**—His successor, Louis le Gros, was a man of very different calibre. Resolved on making his authority felt, he began by putting a stop to the ravages of the nobles, many of whom were little better than brigands. He made himself respected by the turbulent barons and the powerful Duke of Aquitaine in the south, and in the north secured the suzerainty of the county of Flanders. He conferred the investiture of it on William Cliton, son of Robert Curthose, eldest son of William the Conqueror. Henry I. of England, who had dispos-

1. What was the character of Philip I.? With whom did he war? Who was his great rival? 2. What was the character of Louis VI.? Whom did he subdue?

sessed his eldest brother, declared war against the King of France for thus aiding the prince, and defeated him at Brenneville. Pope Calixtus II., then a refugee in France, reconciled the rivals. The Emperor Henry V., however, warred on Louis for protecting the pope. Louis called to his aid all the vassals and soldiers of his kingdom (1124), and the emperor withdrew in alarm. Louis did much towards establishing the stability of his kingdom, and he found great assistance in the wise counsels of his friend Suger, the abbot of St. Denis.

3. Emancipation of the Towns; Municipal Cities, etc.—During all the turmoils of the eleventh and twelfth centuries the peoples of the great cities, beginning to feel their power, were gradually forcing themselves into freedom and communal liberties. These cities and towns were the centres of industrial and commercial enterprise, which it was necessary to protect from the lawless inroads of the nobles. In Italy and southern France some cities still retained much of the old characteristics of the Roman municipality or form of civic self-government. These cities were governed by magistrates elected by the citizens and appointed to the various offices. Out of these in Italy was formed the Lombard League, which broke the power of Frederick Barbarossa; and in France, Flanders, and Germany there were several such.

4. The Communes.—In addition to these rose up the communes—associations of the inhabitants of a district, who, when occasion called, met in the church or on the public square for the defence of their franchises and liberties as guaranteed by charter. The charter was the written record of their liberties granted by the lord and the conditions under which it was granted. Each com-

How did Louis become embroiled with England? What other foes had he?
3. Describe the advance of the people during this period. Tell how the cities grew. 4. What were the communes? How were the communes protected?

mune had a city-hall, a special seal, and a belfry with clock-tower. In the belfry was a signal-man, who rang the hours of the assembly, and when danger threatened called the commune to arms.

5. Growth of the Middle Classes.—There were also cities without charter or independent administration, but to which, for certain motives, important franchises and privileges were granted by the king or suzerain. These were the privileged cities, or commonalities, which, under royal or other high favor, rapidly grew in wealth, numbers, and power. The communes, when not oppressed by the nobles, were often the centres of internal discord. So from the thirteenth century out they gradually surrendered their charters to place themselves under the royal protection. Out of these citizens grew up the middle class, or burghers, who were destined in the future to secure the liberties of all the people.

6. Louis VII. (1137-1180); Henry II. of England.—Louis VII. began by intermeddling in ecclesiastical affairs. Refusing to acknowledge the Archbishop of Bourges appointed by the pope, he was led into a war notorious for the burning of Vitry. Remorse led him to undertake the second Crusade, wherein he lost his army. The kingdom was still more distressed by Louis' quarrels with his queen, Eleanor of Guienne, from whom he obtained a divorce. She then married Henry Plantagenet (1152), who two years later was proclaimed king of England. By marriage and inheritance all western France, save Brittany, fell to Henry, and he married his son Geoffrey to Constance, the heiress of that duchy. Louis favored the revolts of Henry's children and gave protection to St. Thomas à Becket, the exiled Archbishop of Canterbury.

5. What were the privileged cities, and what class grew out of them? 6. Describe the reign of Louis VII. Whom did his wife marry? What came of the marriage? What occurred between Louis and Henry II.?

7. Philip II. (1180-1223).—Philip II., surnamed Augustus, was a boy of fifteen when he ascended the throne, but was endowed with great gifts. He followed up the quarrels with the kings of England. A copartner of Richard Cœur de Lion in the Crusade, he suddenly left the East. On his return to France he took advantage of Richard's absence to attempt the conquest of Normandy. But when Richard came back he easily reconquered it all and obtained a truce of five years by the mediation of Innocent III. At his death (1199) his brother John, to secure the crown from his nephew, Arthur of Brittany, had Arthur murdered. The deed created general horror, and Philip summoned John, his vassal of Normandy, to appear before the court of peers (1203). John, refusing, was condemned to forfeit all his French possessions. Philip conquered Normandy and added it to the crown of France three hundred years after its conquest by the Normans. Touraine, Maine, Anjou, and Poitou fell in quick succession, and soon but a third of his French possessions remained to the English king.

8. Triumph and Reforms of Philip II.—To save his crown, which was offered to the King of France, John declared himself a vassal of the Holy See. With the Emperor Otho IV., the Count of Flanders, and others he formed a league against Philip. But he himself was beaten near Angers by Prince Louis, and his allies routed by Philip at Bouvines (1214). Philip was equally successful in regulating the internal affairs of his kingdom. He gave the sanction of law to the decision of the court of peers; he established an efficient police for the maintenance of order; he created seventy-eight provosts to control the affairs of the army, finances, and justice, under the supervision

7. What was the character of Philip II.? With whom did he quarrel and what came of the quarrel? Why was Prince Arthur murdered and what resulted from the murder? 8. Describe the reforms instituted by Philip II.

of bailiffs. Thus did he strengthen the royal authority against the great nobles.

9. Louis VIII. (1223-1226).—Louis maintained against the English the conquests of his father and carried on a successful crusade against the Albigenses, when he suddenly died in Auvergne.

10. St. Louis (1226-1270).—Louis IX., a boy of eleven, was protected in his minority by his mother, Blanche of Castile, as regent. She compelled the great nobles who had revolted to return to their allegiance. The treaty of Paris terminated the Albigensian war (1229), which for twenty years had desolated the southern provinces. Louis, once he assumed the reins of government, completed his mother's work. He subdued the revolted nobles and compelled England, who aided them, to sign peace. Louis' exploits against the infidels have been told elsewhere. At the news of his captivity all France was filled with mourning. The peasants took up arms to rescue him, but committed so many excesses at Paris and Orleans that Blanche had forcibly to suppress them.

11. At her death Louis hastened back to his kingdom. He enacted many wise laws. He put a stop to the private wars of the nobles and abolished the proof of innocence by duel. He made it easy for petitions to reach the throne, and reserved to himself the right of coining money. To superintend the provosts and bailiffs he sent "royal inquisitors" into the provinces. He was in person open to the appeal of the meanest of his subjects, and was chosen arbiter in many foreign disputes.

SECTION II. England.

12. William the Conqueror (1066-1087).—The fall of

9. Tell of Louis VIII. 10. What of Blanche of Castile? What did the treaty of Paris decide? How did St. Louis govern? 11. What happened on the death of Blanche? What were the characteristics of Louis' home government?

Harold at Hastings (1066) gave England over to William, Duke of Normandy. After his coronation he secured his power by dividing England up among his followers. He made Scotland bow to his suzerainty (1073). He was in a constant state of quarrel with Philip I. of France over his Norman possessions, and met his death while besieging Mantes. To his eldest son, Robert, he left the duchy of Normandy; to the second, William, the crown of England; and to the third, Henry, little more than the prediction that he would one day inherit both his brothers' fortunes.

13. William Rufus.—William II., called Rufus from his red hair, had to defend his crown against Robert. To secure the Anglo-Saxons' favor he gave them back their ancient liberties. Robert was defeated in Normandy, and pawned his duchy to William in order to raise funds to join in the first Crusade. After the death of his adviser, Archbishop Lanfranc, he gave himself up to cruelty, exactions, and indulgence in his passions. He took back the liberties he gave and loaded the people with taxes. The Church, too, was oppressed; bishoprics were sold to the highest bidders or held vacant, and their revenues turned into the royal treasury. St. Anselm, the venerable Archbishop of Canterbury, was exiled for daring to admonish the king. The country was at last relieved of him by death. He was shot while hunting, by Walter Tyrrel, one of his knights (1100).

14. Henry I. (1100-1135).—Robert was away at the Crusade when William died, so his brother Henry, called the Scholar, had himself crowned king. To secure his popularity he, on the day of his coronation, published a charter restoring the ancient liberties of the people and making the Church free. St. Anselm was recalled from exile, and

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12. How did William the Conqueror secure his power? How did he divide his domains? 13. Describe the reign of William Rufus. What was his end? 14. How did Henry I. come to the throne? What was Henry's charter?

Henry married Matilda, daughter of Malcolm of Scotland. When Robert returned to claim his inheritance he found Henry in secure possession. He was taken prisoner at Tinchebrai (1106) and shut up in Cardiff Castle, where he lingered for twenty-eight years. His son, William Cliton, sought the protection of France, but Henry was victorious over all. His declining years were clouded by the drowning of his son. His daughter Matilda married the Emperor Henry V., and, after his death, Geoffrey, Count of Anjou, surnamed Plantagenet from the sprig of broom which was the family device. Henry made all the principal barons swear fealty to Matilda. The latter portion of his reign was oppressive and tyrannical.

15. Stephen of Blois (1135-1154) and Matilda; Civil War.—On the death of Henry, Stephen of Blois, his nephew and grandson of William the Conqueror, seized the throne. The barons in turn swore fealty to him. They were won over by the gifts he lavished on them, but fell from him when the gifts ceased. David, King of Scotland, took up the cause of Matilda, crossed the border, and ravaged the northern shires (1137). He was defeated by an uprising of the people, under the leadership of the Archbishop of York, at the famous battle of the “Standard.” Matilda landed in England and found such a following that Stephen was beaten and taken prisoner at Lincoln (1141). Matilda’s pride and violence so angered the citizens of London that they rose and drove her out. Stephen regained his liberty, and all England was devastated by a prolonged civil war. On the death of his eldest son Stephen acknowledged the young Prince Henry Plantagenet as heir, and the war ended (1153).

16. Henry II. (1154-1189); St. Thomas à Becket.—When

How was Robert treated? Describe Henry’s reign. What of Matilda?
15. Who succeeded Henry? What followed Stephen’s accession? Describe the struggle. How did it end?

Henry ascended the English throne he was one of the most powerful monarchs in Europe, owning not only England but nearly all western France. He was a man of great ability, great duplicity, and strong passions. He raised his chancellor, friend, and favorite, Thomas à Becket, to the see of Canterbury. Thomas demurred, but Henry insisted, regarding him as a creature of his own. Once archbishop Thomas threw off all courtliness and became a sincere churchman and defender of the dignity of his office and the liberties of the Church and of the people. The king's friendship changed to hate. His wish was to get complete power over the Church and bring all jurisdiction into the lay courts.

17. Martyrdom of St. Thomas à Becket.—A long struggle ensued between the king and the archbishop, which for the most part Thomas had to sustain unaided by the courtier-prelates who filled the sees of England. He was compelled to fly the kingdom, but the hearts of the people followed him in his exile. On his return, after a pretended reconciliation on Henry's part, the populace rushed to meet him wherever he passed. He excommunicated some of the bishops who had violated the ecclesiastical laws. Some passionate words let fall from Henry were caught up by a few of his knights. Four of them immediately set out, and, arriving at Canterbury, found the archbishop assisting at Vespers. There they murdered him at the foot of the altar (December 29, 1170).

SECTION III. Ireland.

18. Ancient Ireland.—It was during the reign of Henry that the first Anglo-Norman invasion of Ireland took place. Ireland was governed by the clan or family system, each clan

16. What was the domain of Henry II.? Whom did he make chancellor, and with what result? 17. Describe the struggle between the king and the archbishop. How did it end?

holding its territory in common. The laws were just and wise, had they only been observed, but the clans were in a constant state of quarrel with one another. There were five great divisions, Ulster, Munster, Leinster, Connaught, and Meath, each of which was governed by a king, or *righ* (pronounced *ree*), the King of Meath enjoying a nominal supremacy. The laws were administered by the *brehons*, or judges, who with the bards and druids constituted the privileged classes.

19. Conversion of Ireland.—St. Patrick (432–465) was the great missionary and apostle of the Irish people. He preached the faith to them with marvellous success. They embraced it with fervor, and before his death (March 17, 465) he saw the whole island Christian. Churches and monasteries multiplied rapidly, and Ireland became a great seat of Christian piety and learning, and famed as such through all Europe.

20. Danish Invasions.—This happy state of things was broken in upon by the Danish invaders, who for more than two centuries ravaged the land and built themselves strongholds at the mouths of the principal rivers. They were defeated by Malachi, King of Meath, at Tara. Brian Boru, King of Munster, made an alliance with the Danes, and, defeating Malachi, took part of his territory (1002). Attaining the supremacy, he had to contend against his late friends, the Danes, who made a united effort for the conquest of the island, but were wholly routed at Clontarf (1014), where Brian also perished.

21. Anglo-Norman Invasion.—Freed from the Danish invader, Ireland soon became an object of interest to the Anglo-Normans. The dissensions of the Irish chieftains afforded an easy excuse for the interference of Henry. A

18. How was ancient Ireland governed? 19. By whom was Ireland converted? How did the Irish receive the faith? 20. Tell of the Danish invasions. What happened at Clontarf? 21. Who next invaded Ireland?

band of knights was sent over to defend the cause of MacMurrough, King of Leinster, who had done homage to Henry. They seized on the strong places, and their warlike science and defensive armor enabled them to repel with ease the attacks of the natives. Richard, Earl of Pembroke (Strongbow), was their leader. He married MacMurrough's daughter, and on the death of the king became King of Leinster.

22. Statute of Kilkenny.—Henry himself, at the head of an army, landed in Waterford (1171) and remained in the country five months. The subsequent history for a long period is one series of revolts of the Irish, accompanied by varying success. More Anglo-Normans were drawn in. The people suffered terribly. The chieftains fought against each other as much as against the invader. So wretched was the state of affairs that in the reign of Edward II. the people petitioned for the enjoyment of English laws. The resident Anglo-Norman families gradually, in their descendants, adopted the language, customs, dress, and clan system of the Irish; so much so that the Statute of Kilkenny was enacted (1367), which forbade the people of English race to use the Brehon law, to intermarry with the Irish, to speak the Gaelic language or use the Irish dress—in short, to have anything to do with the Irish save as a subject people.

SECTION IV. Struggles in England; Magna Charta.

23. Henry II. and his Sons.—Henry's sons rebelled against him. Fearful of losing his crown, and of the anger of the people at the murder of St. Thomas à Becket, he underwent public penance, restored the liberties of the Church, and declared himself a vassal of

What success attended the invasion? 22. Describe the condition of the country. What was the Statute of Kilkenny and why was it enacted? 23. How did Henry act after the death of St. Thomas?

the Holy See. His sons, aided by Louis VII., warred against him in France. The Scots invaded England. The King of Scotland was defeated and taken prisoner, and only set free on acknowledging the suzerainty of England. Henry was also successful in France (1174), but his wife, Eleanor, fanned the flame of revolt among the sons. Two came to sudden deaths. Richard Cœur de Lion, aided by Philip, raised the last revolt, and Henry was compelled to submit to most humiliating terms. Seeing the name of his youngest and favorite son, John, among the rebels, the old man's heart broke, and he died cursing the day of his birth and the sons he left behind him.

24. Richard I. (1189-1199); John (1199-1216).—Richard inherited all his father's dominions. To John was given Ireland. Richard set out for the Crusades, taxing his subjects and selling his suzerainty over Scotland in order to raise money for the purpose. His history in the East and subsequent adventures have been given elsewhere. On his return to England, whence he ousted his brother John, he easily reconquered his French domains. He perished in a miserable quarrel about a treasure discovered on an estate belonging to his domain, and to which he claimed sole right.

25. John's troubled Reign.—John hastened to secure the throne claimed by his nephew Arthur, supported by the King of France. Capturing Arthur, he had him put to death, as before shown, and lost his French possessions to Philip. He next embroiled himself with the Church, holding the see of Canterbury for a favorite against the lawfully elected archbishop, Stephen Langton (1207). He despoiled Canterbury and exiled its clergy. Pope Innocent

What of Henry's sons? What of the Scotch invasion? How did the reign end? 24. Who succeeded Henry? Describe Richard's reign. 25. How did John open his reign?

III. laid the kingdom under an interdict, suspending all the offices of religion save the baptism of infants and administration of the Viaticum to the dying (1208). John, moved to still greater fury, became a scourge to his kingdom. He was excommunicated (1209), and in revenge sought alliance with the Albigenses and the King of Morocco. He was put under the ban of Christendom and declared deposed by the pope, his subjects being released from their fealty (1212). Philip undertook to execute the sentence and invade England. John at last yielded, accepted Langton as archbishop, and became reconciled with the Holy See and with his subjects (1213). Immediately after he formed a league against Philip, but it was defeated, his allies at Bouvines and himself at Angers (1214).

26. Magna Charta (1215).—John returned to England a beaten man, only to find the country up in arms against him. Prelates and barons, weary of tyranny and exactions, had united to force from the king a restoration of the country's liberties. He promised to restore the charter of Henry I., but soon after broke his word. The barons marched against him, and John was compelled to sign at Runnymede Magna Charta, or the Great Charter (June 15, 1215). This is regarded as the basis of the English Constitution. It ensures freedom and liberty of election to the Church. It cut down the most dangerous of the monarch's feudal rights. No tax was to be levied without the consent of the great national council. Freedmen were to be tried by their peers.

27. Death of John.—Again John proved false to his oath, and, deceiving Innocent III., got permission to retract his signature to the Charter. He ravaged the country with bands of foreign mercenaries. The barons offered the

What sentence did John call down on himself? How fared matters in England? 26. What action did the barons take? What was Magna Charta, and what did it secure? 27. How did John act?

crown to Louis, the Dauphin, who entered London. John, hastening to meet him, lost his baggage and treasures in the Wash and died three days after (October 19, 1216).

28. Henry III. (1216-1272).—John's eldest son, Henry, a boy of ten years, succeeded. The aversion to foreigners lost the cause for Prince Louis, who was deserted by the barons, especially when they learned of the defeat of his army at Lincoln and destruction of his fleet off Dover. He hastened back to France, and Earl Pembroke was made regent and guardian of the young king. In this office he was succeeded by Hubert de Burgo, the gallant defender of Dover Castle and winner of the first naval engagement between the English and French fleets. Henry, when he assumed the reins of government (1234), favored the Frenchmen who had accompanied his queen, Eleanor, to England. Losses in battle against the French, the imposition of arbitrary taxes, and frequent violation of the Great Charter soon lost to the king the confidence of his people.

29. Revolt of the Barons.—A famine occurred to cap the discontent, which found a leader in Simon de Montfort, Earl of Leicester, son of the conqueror of the Albigenses and husband of the king's sister. He was an able politician and general. Setting himself at the head of the barons, he compelled Henry to convoke a national council at Oxford, where the king swore to observe Magna Charta. A committee was formed to draw up the Statutes of Oxford, which so curtailed the power of the king as to merge it in the national council, or Parliament. The Parliament was to assemble at least once every three years. To the committee was delegated the chief executive power. Its orders were binding under pain of death, whence its title

28. Who succeeded John? What came of the French invasion? Why were the English restive under Henry? 29. Who led the revolt? What were the Statutes of Oxford? What is meant by the Mad Parliament?

of the Mad Parliament. A reaction set in in Henry's favor. He appealed to the King of France as umpire. St. Louis decided that the royal prerogatives should be restored, and that the king, on his side, should grant a general amnesty and maintain Magna Charta.

30. Simon de Montfort and Prince Edward.—Simon de Montfort was not satisfied with this decision. He stood by the Statutes of Oxford and stirred up a new revolt. Henry III. and his young son Edward met the barons at Lewes (1264). The impetuosity of Edward lost the day to the royalists, and Henry, his brother Richard, and the prince were taken prisoners. Simon now ruled England over the weak king. In 1265 he originated the English Parliament as it now stands by summoning to the council representatives from each shire, borough, and city of the land. Thus the lower house, or Commons, came into being.

31. Battle of Evesham (1265).—Disaffection soon arose. Prince Edward escaped and gathered a new army. Simon met him near Evesham and placed the king in the front rank of his army. The king was wounded, and only saved from death by his son Edward, who gained a complete victory. Simon fell with two of his sons, and but ten of the revolting barons escaped with their lives. Henry was reinstated in authority, and Edward departed for the Crusade of St. Louis, where he gained glory for his exploits.

Tell of the decision of St. Louis. 30. What course did Simon take? What happened at Lewes? What did Simon originate? 31. Describe the battle of Evesham and its result.

CHAPTER V.

THE SCANDINAVIANS, SLAVS, AND MONGOLS.

SECTION I. Scandinavian Kingdoms.

1. **Norway.**—The Scandinavian kingdoms that received Christianity in the preceding epoch advanced in civilization and soon became part of the great Christian family. The Norwegians, though the last of the race to embrace the faith, became the first in zeal and fervor. Their kings were, for the most part, warriors. One of them, Magnus III. (1093-1103), undertaking the conquest of Ireland, was overcome and slain at Downpatrick. His son, Sigurd I., married a daughter of Murroch O'Brian, King of Munster.

2. With a fleet of sixty vessels, carrying an army of ten thousand men, he set out for the Crusades and gave powerful aid to Baldwin. Leaving his army in the East, he returned home. After him came fifty years of anarchy to Norway. King Sverrer (1178-1202) finally restored order, and died literally on his throne, as became a king. His grandson, Haco V. (1217-1263), completed the work of his grandsire, subdued all factions, favored commerce, and built a powerful fleet. He died while ravaging Scotland, and the royal dynasty became extinct in 1319.

3. **Sweden.**—Sweden, rent by domestic strife, stood long aloof from the rest of Europe. Christianity made its way slowly in the north (Sweden proper), but more easily in the south (Gothia). Each division elected kings in turn (1133-1250). Sverker, the first king elected by the Goths, organized the Christian Church in his dominions

1. Tell of the Norwegians. How did they fare in Ireland? 2. What expedition did Sigurd undertake? What followed on his death? In whom did the dynasty become extinct? 3. How did Christianity spread in Sweden?

with the aid of Nicholas Breakspere, cardinal legate, afterwards Adrian IV. St. Eric was the second king, and the author of the "Laws of God and of St. Eric." He subdued the pagan Finns and founded among them the city of Abo.

4. Charles, his successor and son of Sverker, founded the archbishopric of Upsal and left the throne to Canute, son of St. Eric. With the fourth king both families became extinct, and the crown passed to the Folkung family in the person of the young Waldemar, a relative of St. Eric on his mother's side. Birger, his father, and regent of the kingdom, completed the conquest of Finland, founded Stockholm, constructed roads, and reformed the judiciary. He died in 1266, and Waldemar, unequal to his charge, was dethroned by his brother Magnus (1275-1290).

5. **Denmark.**—Sweyn, nephew of Canute the Great, after a troubled reign (1047-1074), thought to end disturbance by arranging that his sons should succeed one another on the throne. Five did so succeed, but were very different in character and in their government. Troubles of all kinds distracted the kingdom until the accession of Waldemar I. (1157-1181).

6. **Waldemar the Great.**—Waldemar, surnamed the Great, restored order, aided by Eskil, Archbishop of Lund, and Absalon, or Axel, Bishop of Roskilde and chancellor of the kingdom. With Henry the Lion of Saxony he defeated the Slavs of Vandalia, who always threatened the kingdom, slew their king, Nielot, and concluded an honorable treaty with his successor, Prebislas. He subdued the whole coast and made the Vandals Christians. He founded Copenhagen and drew up the wise Christian laws that form the code of Scania and Zealand. He was a great patron of

For what was King Eric famous? 4. Into whose hands did the crown pass? Tell of Birger and his work. 5. Describe events in Denmark. 6. Tell of Waldemar the Great and his achievements.

learning, which he helped to spread throughout his kingdom.

7. Successors of Waldemar the Great.—His sons, Canute VI. and Waldemar II., the Victorious, consolidated his conquests. The second Waldemar compelled the dukes of Mecklenburg and the two Pomeranias to pay homage, made peace between Sweden and Norway, and led a successful expedition against the pagans of Esthonia. He founded the cities of Revel and Narva. In 1223 he was seized by a vassal and confined for three years. On being ransomed he lost several of his conquests and was defeated in two pitched battles. His son, Eric VI., who succeeded him, was murdered at the instigation of his brother Abel, and Abel himself was treacherously slain after a reign of two years (1252). Christopher I. (1252-1259), also a son of Waldemar II., was humbled by the King of Norway and regent of Sweden, and fell at last by poison. His son, Eric VII., after a troubled reign, was also slain (1286).

SECTION II. The Slavonian Tribes.

8. Condition of the Slavs.—The Slavonian tribes spread along the coasts of the Baltic from the Danish frontier to the great lakes of Finland. They were bloodthirsty idolaters. They formed no state, properly speaking. The central Slavs had become Christian. The Czechs of Bohemia blend with the history of Germany. Of the southern Slavs, who were also Christians, the Wallachians formed the kingdom of Bulgaria, the Servians gave their princes the title of king, and emperor even, and the Croats formed the kingdom of Dalmatia. All freed themselves from the Byzantine Goths only to become subjects of Hungary, or still later of the Turks.

7. How did Waldemar's successors act? What befell the sons of Waldemar II.? 8. Who were the Slavs? How were they divided? To whom did they become subject?

9. Three Slavonic states demand special attention : Hungary, which is Slavonic save for the one hundred and eight Magyar families constituting the nobility ; Poland, wholly Slavonic and Catholic like Hungary ; and Russia, Slavonic with a mingling of Scandinavians. The political head of the Russians was a grand duke ; their spiritual head the patriarch of Constantinople, who with his flock was drifting from Rome.

10. **Hungary.**—The descendants of Arpad were alone privileged to wear the crown of St. Stephen, which was often a source of bloody contention. Towards the close of the eleventh century St. Ladislaus and Coloman vanquished the Greeks of the Danube and secured a southern frontier by subjugating the Croats and adding Dalmatia to their crown. They settled various tribes who consented to conversion on the frontiers, and these always bore the first shock of invasion. There were many contentions for the throne, and much violence wrought to the kingdom in consequence. The folly of Andrew II. (1205-1235) in signing the Golden Bull, which virtually set all the power in the hands of the nobles, gave form to anarchy.

11. **Poland.**—Boleslaus the Bold (1058-1081) assumed the title of king without the permission of the Emperor Henry IV., his suzerain. He was a passionate and cruel man. Stanislaus, Bishop of Cracow, having ventured to remonstrate with him, he stabbed him while saying Mass. For this he was excommunicated by Pope Gregory VII. His subjects rose up and drove him out, and he ended his days in a cloister. His successors contented themselves with the title of duke, and aided greatly in converting the Prussians, Pomeranians, and other Baltic tribes considered as subjects of Poland.

9. Describe the three chief Slavonic states. How was Russia ruled ? 10. Describe the progress of events in Hungary. 11. Describe the reign of Boleslaus the Bold. How did his successors behave ?

12. Polish Dissensions.—Boleslaus III. (1102-1138), aided by the Prince of Pomerania, himself became the catechist of his pagan subjects. His reign was fortunate. At his death he divided his vast realms among his five sons, reserving for the ablest the city of Cracow, with a certain supremacy over the others. This division was the cause of dissensions that distracted Poland for sixty-five years (1138-1202).

13. Schism in Russia.—The Grand Duke Jaroslav (1019-1054), son of St. Vladimir, was absolute master of Russia. In his will he divided it up among his five sons, the holder of Kief alone retaining the title of grand duke and the position of commander-in-chief of the Russian armies. The result of the division was three centuries of civil strife. Just at this time came a devastating wave from the East in the shape of the Polovtsi, or Comans, who drank blood and fed on raw meat. They came from the steppes of Turkistan and took up their quarters on the Don. The Uzbeks and other tribes roamed at their will on the plains of the Dnieper and the Dniester. On the Volga the Eastern Bulgarians, who were zealous Mohammedans, maintained their independence. The Finns, Livonians, Lithuanians, Prussians, all obstinate pagans, menaced Russia on the west. The Russian Church was feeble and had done little in the way of converting those on its borders. Their priesthood married and had as little learning as zeal. They had followed the schism of Constantinople and were extremely bigoted in their views. Thus Russia was severed in spirit from Catholic Europe just when she most needed its aid.

14. The supremacy of the grand dukes of Kief was maintained, nominally at least, for about a century amid inces-

12. What caused dissensions in Poland? 13. How did Jaroslav partition Russia? What followed from the partition? By whom was Russia invaded? What was the character of the Russian Church?

sant civil strife and struggles with the barbarians. From 1157 the city of Kief had the city of Vladimir for a rival. The masters of each assumed the title of grand duke. During the incessant contentions several cities took government into their own hands and set up as republics, Novgorod being one. In 1212 the monarchy had disappeared.

SECTION III. The Mongols and the Empire of Jenghis Khan.

15. Jenghis Khan.—The nomad tribes of the Mongol or yellow race had wandered for centuries on the high, cold table-lands of Central Asia. A pastoral people, they built no cities and kept remote from the influence of civilization. About 1163 Temuchin, son of the Khan (chief) Bahadur, was born of one of these tribes. At thirteen the death of his father left him master of forty thousand families. A revolt forced him to fly. Gathering a band and gaining allies, he took summary vengeance on his revolted subjects. They then submitted and most of the Mongols hailed him as chief. Those who refused were beaten into submission. Swearing to share with his followers the bitterness as well as the sweets of life, they proclaimed him their great chief, Jenghis Khan.

16. Gathering his tribes together, he prepared for conquest. Central Asia was then held by four great empires: Kin, on the northeast, founded by the Tartars; to the southeast China proper; to the northwest Kara-Kitai; and Tangut, near the Himalayas, occupied by Turkish tribes. Kin had supremacy over China, Tangut, and the Mongols.

17. Mongolian Conquests.—Jenghis Khan first marched against Kin, to whose monarch he owed allegiance. For five years he ravaged it with fire and slaughter, destroying cities, among others Pekin. He was a cruel and merciless

14. What action was taken by certain Russian cities? 15. Who were the Mongols? Who led them to conquest? 16. What powers held Central Asia? 17. Describe Jenghis Khan's march and methods.

conqueror. Leaving a general behind him to complete the havoc, he passed over to Tangut, thence to Kara-Kitai, pursuing everywhere his policy of destruction. In Kara-Kitai he found Christians, whom he treated with some consideration. From them he learned the art of writing, and adopted their characters for the Mongolian tongue.

18. Conquest of Khorasmia.—Reaching the great mountain chain of Bolor-Tagh, the eyes of the barbaric horde were feasted on the riches of a new Asiatic empire spread out beneath them. This was Khorasmia, stretching from the Sea of Aral to the Indian Ocean, and from the Caspian Sea to the great Bolor chain. It was the greatest of the Mohammedan kingdoms, and Jenghis Khan proposed a treaty of alliance with it. His offer was scornfully rejected by the sultan, Mohammed Koteb-ed-Deen. Whereupon Jenghis Khan entered and took Bokhara, Samarcand, and all the other great cities in turn, sacking and destroying on all sides. The country was ruined. The people emigrated towards Syria, and Mohammed retired to die on an island in the Caspian Sea (1222).

19. Conquest of Russia.—Nothing could withstand the onset of this fierce conqueror. The hardy people of the Caucasus were compelled to submit; the Polovtsi were crushed. The Mongols neared the Russian borders and sent deputies to seek alliance. The deputies were slain. The Russian princes and Polovtsi assembled on the Kalka near its confluence with the Dnieper. They were utterly defeated and the princes slain (1224). Turning back, Jenghis Khan marched against the empire of Tangut, which he destroyed. He then returned home to die (1227).

20. Partition of the Mongol Empire.—The vast empire of Jenghis Khan was divided among his four sons, one bear-

How did Jenghis Khan treat the Christians? What did he learn from them?
18. Describe the conquest of Khorasmia. 19. How did Russia fare? What was his last conquest?

ing the title of grand khan and being chief over the others. Batu, son of Tushi, khan of the Caucasus region, pushed on the conquests in this direction. He overwhelmed the Bulgarians of the Volga. The Russian princes were again at strife. Batu fell upon them, destroying the chief cities, Resan, Moscow, Vladimir, and Kief. At Sarai, on the Volga, he rested and fixed his residence (1238).

21. Gaiuk.—The grand khan, Octai, sent another army under his son, Gaiuk, to push the conquests further. They marched into Poland, beat the Poles, and burned Cracow. The Poles rallied, but were crushed at Lieznitz, in Silesia (1241). The Mongols passed into Hungary, routed Bela IV. and committed their customary outrages on the unfortunate people. For two years they had the country at their mercy. The king fled.

22. Gaiuk, recalled to succeed his father, quitted Hungary, which then saw the last of the Mongols. Poland saw them three times again. Lesko, successor of Boleslaus V., struggled bravely but hopelessly against them (1280). Russia suffered most of all, and finally submitted to the oppressor. The grand duke was invested with his dignity by the khan of the Golden Horde, to whom he paid homage and tribute. Russia remained subject to the yoke for two hundred and thirty-five years.

23. Destruction of the Assassins.—Many of the successive khans proved themselves men of great warlike capacity. One of them, Hulagu, by invitation of the Caliph Motassem, prepared to storm the heights of the "Old Man of the Mountain," at this time Roken-ed-Deen, the seventh successor of Hassan. The fortresses were surrendered, Roken-ed-Deen was put to death, and the sect of the Assassins was soon after exterminated (1256).

20. What became of Jenghis Khan's empire? Tell of Batu and his exploits.
21. What befell the Poles and Hungarians? 22. How was Hungary saved?
What of Poland? Of Russia? 23. Who destroyed the Assassins?

24. Other Mongolian Conquests.—Two years later Hulagu, after a bloody struggle, put an end to the Mohammedan caliphate. Motassem was beaten to death with clubs (1258). He was the last of the Abbassides. Fifty years later a successor of Hulagu put an end to the Turkish sultanate of Iconium. Thus the Seljuks scarcely survived the crusading expeditions. In the far East the Khan Kublaï encouraged agriculture, commerce, and literature among his people. He took Nankin in 1279 and became master of southern China. The Sung dynasty, which had lasted three centuries, was destroyed, and Kublaï founded over it the twenty-first dynasty of China. He rebuilt Peking, which he called Cambalu. Here he received and entertained at his court for seventeen years the famous Venetian traveller Marco Polo, as also the Franciscans, who founded an archbishopric and flourishing mission at Cambalu. Kublaï's empire stretched from the Japan Sea to the Mediterranean and the great lakes of Finland, but was too unwieldy to last.

CHAPTER VI.

THE TWO GREAT CENTURIES OF THE MIDDLE AGES.

THE popes gave an impetus to many salutary institutions. New religious orders sprang up to attack error and vice, convert unbelievers, and teach theological science. Modern nationalities and languages began to shape themselves, Christian art produced its masterpieces, and the people raised imperishable monuments of faith.

SECTION I. Zenith of the Papacy and the Church.

1. "Ages of Faith."—The title of "Ages of Faith" is applied by some to the period included within the ponti-

24. Whom next did the Mongols subdue? What befell the sultanate of Iconium? What of Khan Kublaï? What dynasty did he found? Mention memorable facts of his reign.

ificate of Gregory VII. (1073) and the convocation of the Fourteenth General Council under Gregory X. (1274). Others call this the new birth of art and literature. The Papacy was at this time most powerful in Europe, and the influence of the Church was paramount. The great feature of this influence was the gradual triumph of Christian feeling over the brute force and passions of men.

2. Influence of the Popes.—During the three centuries of persecution the head of the Church was seen but little. After Constantine the popes came forth and shone in councils, where errors were pointed out and heresies condemned. After Charlemagne the splendor and greatness of the Roman pontificate were made still more apparent. The pope influenced the monarchs and princes of the time, was their arbiter in doubtful cases, and for ever stood between their tyranny and the oppressed peoples. They maintained, above all, the liberties of the Church—that is to say, the liberty of the Christian, which is the foundation of all liberty—free election of bishops, free appointment to sees, and the maintenance of ecclesiastical privileges, which were the refuge of multitudes in those times against the power of the monarch or the lawlessness of the nobles. The Papacy thus became the very centre of Christendom.

3. The Popes Patrons of Art, Letters, and Civilization.—Side by side with this attitude of Christian independence stood their constant solicitude for the advancement of peoples in all that was good and great. They sent forth troops of missionaries to convert the heathen. They were the chief patrons of learning at a period when learning was threatened with destruction. They watched over the arts, blessed and sanctioned all good institutions—such

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1. What is meant by the "Ages of Faith" and how far did they extend?
 2. Describe the growing influence of the Papacy. What did the popes maintain?
 3. In what else did the popes take the lead?

as the Truce of God, chivalry, associations for building churches, roads, bridges, protecting pilgrims—the universities, and the religious orders.

4. Religious Orders.—The religious orders in the middle ages were the great pioneers of industry, learning, and Christian living among the people. The great abbey of Cluny, the mother-house of so many, was the model upon which all other congregations were fashioned. They sprang up in great numbers and variety. In 1076 the order of Grandmont was founded by St. Stephen of Thiers; in 1084 St. Bruno of Cologne and St. Hugh, Bishop of Grenoble, founded the Carthusians; in 1098 St. Robert founded the Cistercians, which soon attracted to them the great St. Bernard. These and many such were all grafted on the Benedictine stock. A number of others, such as the Canons Regular, the Premonstratensians, were added in the twelfth century. This century also witnessed the rise of the military orders which did such great service to Christendom in combating the infidel.

5. Mendicant and Charitable Orders.—The thirteenth century, which began during the illustrious pontificate of Innocent III. (1198-1216), saw a new series of orders arise. These were the mendicant or begging friars, who went about begging their way and teaching and preaching the while. There were various divisions of them: the Preaching Friars, or Dominicans, founded at Toulouse by St. Dominic, and the Friars Minor, founded by St. Francis of Assisi. There were many branches of the latter order, but all had the same aim and manner of life. In 1256 Alexander IV. united all the religious orders of the West into one mendicant order under the name of Hermits of St. Augustine, or Augustinians. These had

4. Describe the office and work of the religious orders. Mention some of the orders and their founders. 5. What orders arose in the thirteenth century? What was their special office? Mention two great divisions.

branch orders also for women, as well as a Third Order for persons living in the world.

6. There followed various other orders who devoted themselves to the body as well as the soul: the care of the sick, the indigent, the unfortunate, the redemption of captives. Several purely monastic orders were also founded in this century.

7/ **Fanatical Sects.**—With the rise of religious orders and spread of the faith came contrary sects and confraternities, having for their object the overthrow of the faith, or of this or that portion of it. One of these, whose leader called himself the Son of God, attacked the sacraments and payment of tithes. Another railed at the Mass, singing, and the use of images. The Waldenses objected to Catholic festivals, the sacred rites, and, most of all, confession. They confined themselves to the reading of the Scriptures. All these sectaries indulged in great excesses and had to be put down by force of arms as a danger to society, preaching and example having no effect on them.

8/ **The Inquisition.**—Forced to submit outwardly, they for the most part continued their practices in secret. To guard against them and preserve the purity of Christian faith the Council of Toulouse (1229) set up tribunals endowed with extraordinary powers. These constituted the Inquisition, or Holy Office, where heretics were denounced to the ordinary of the diocese and submitted to the censures of the Church. If the sentence was one of condemnation the accused was handed over to the civil power to inflict the punishment awarded; the monarchs of those days regarding heresy, blasphemy, and sacrilege as crimes against civil society and to be punished accordingly.

6. Tell of other orders. 7. What sects arose? Who were the Waldenses? Why were the sects put down? 8. How came the Inquisition? What was the office of the Inquisition?

SECTION II. Theological Sciences, National Languages, Christian Art.

9. Scholastic Theology.—The heresies of the eleventh century were the occasion of great theological lights appearing on the other side. The constant discussions sharpened intellects and stimulated effort. Even the Christian champions themselves, as St. Anselm and Roscelin of Compiègne, agreeing in doctrine, sometimes differed in method of interpretation. Peter Abelard drew crowds to listen to his lectures. He fell from his intellectual height, and his errors were laid bare by St. Bernard.

10. Great Theologians.—Peter Lombard, a friend of St. Bernard and disciple of Abelard, first arranged the substance of theology on a simple and clear plan in his *Four Books of Sentences*. New heresies sprang up, to be met by new men. The mendicant orders devoted themselves to teaching as much as to begging. Paris was the home of theological studies. There Alexander of Hales and Albertus Magnus taught the divine science. But even they were outshone by their disciples, St. Bonaventure and St. Thomas Aquinas, who to this day stand the masters of the science they drank in with their hearts as well as with their minds. Vincent of Beauvais, Roger Bacon, and Duns Scotus are names that also shed lustre on this glorious period.

11. Civil and Canon Law.—While Paris was the great centre of theology and philosophy, Bologna was learned in the law. It was a Bolognese, Irnerius, who in the twelfth century exhumed and edited the Pandects of Justinian. The sacred canons were also taught there. By direction of Gregory IX., in 1234, St. Raymond of Peñafort made a complete collection of the papal decisions down to that date, which is known as the *Decretals of Gregory IX.*

9. What was the effect of the heresies of the eleventh century? Mention some great theologians. 10. What of Peter Lombard? For what was Paris famous? Mention other illustrious doctors. 11. For what was Bologna famous?

12. Universities.—The universities grew out of the general eagerness for knowledge. The episcopal and abbatial schools were too small to accommodate the numbers that flocked to them. The course of instruction comprised literature, law, medicine, and theology. There were universities at Bologna, Padua, and Toulouse, all famed for law; at Salerno and Montpellier for medicine; while Paris was the queen in theological science. Others sprang up in Germany, at Heidelberg, Vienna, Ingolstadt (now transferred to Munich), which soon vied with the best. England had its Oxford, and later on its Cambridge; Spain, its Salamanca; and Portugal, Coimbra. Every one of these and others in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries were founded under the direct patronage of the Holy See.

13. Languages.—At the universities the common language spoken was Latin. The purely national literatures sprang up outside of them in the chronicles, laws, songs, and stories of the people. Through these the native idioms gradually formed themselves into the living languages of to-day. The drama was revived, of a sacred character chiefly, and was played in the churches or at public festivals.

14. Christian Art.—Later on Dante arose with his *Divine Comedy*, a monument of his time to all ages. Art revived and took a Christian form. Magnificent basilicas and Gothic cathedrals and churches rose up in all lands out of the faith and devotion of the people. Oftentimes all the people labored together through long years in their erection. Out of this sprang the various styles of mediæval architecture. Out of the same came the rich embellishments, the ornaments, the casting in bronze, the beautiful stained-glass painting. In the thirteenth century painting and sculpture became distinct arts.

12. What was taught at the universities? Name some of the universities. 13. What was the language of the universities? How did the national literatures arise? 14. What of Dante? How fared art? How came mediæval architecture?

FIFTH EPOCH (1270-1453),

FROM THE DEATH OF ST. LOUIS TO THE TAKING OF CONSTANTINOPLE BY THE TURKS—183 YEARS.

THE closing epoch of the Middle Ages was disturbed by religious and political anarchy. The pontifical authority was weakened and many disorders arose in consequence. There was war for a century between France and England; the German Empire declined; Italy was rent by internal struggles; the Spanish kingdoms were at war with each other; while, in the general confusion, the Turks overcame the Slavs and Greeks and seized Constantinople.

CHAPTER I.

THE GREAT SCHISM OF THE WEST.

THE great schism of the West, brought about by the violence of Philip the Fair and the transfer of the Holy See to Avignon, covers a period of seventy-one years (1378-1449). This includes the schism of ten years (1439-1449).

SECTION I. Boniface VIII. and Philip the Fair.

1. Conflict between Boniface and Philip.—The Second Council of Lyons—fourteenth œcumenical—saw the reunion of the Greek and Latin churches (1274). The triumph of the Papacy, under the great Pope Gregory X., seemed complete. Then ensued a series of short pontificates, eight in eighteen years, which weakened the authority of the Holy See. The Greeks relapsed into schism, and the Christians lost their last foothold in the Holy Land before the accession of Pope Boniface VIII. (1294). The rivalries of princes set Europe ajar. The ambition of Philip the Fair of France led him not only to rout the English

How far does the fifth epoch extend? What great events are comprised in it?
1. What was effected at the Council of Lyons? What followed on the death of Gregory X.? How was Europe disturbed?

from French soil, but to seize on Flanders, whose count, Guy of Dampierre, he enticed to Paris and there held prisoner. His subjects were loaded with taxes to support his projects. He invaded church properties. Boniface VIII. advised him to make peace with England and release the Count of Flanders, while at the same time he issued a bull forbidding, under pain of excommunication, the clergy to pay, and the laity to require them to pay, any subsidy without permission of the Holy See (1296).

2. Friendly Relations resumed.—The King of England was equally guilty in this respect with the King of France. Philip declared that God alone was the judge of his acts, and forbade any money to be taken out of France without his permission, thereby stopping the offerings to the Holy See. He suspended relations with the papal court. Germany and Italy were convulsed by internal troubles, so the pope could look for no aid against a monarch who not only held France and Navarre but the sovereigns of Spain and the princes of Naples and Hungary in his dependency. Owing to a revolt of the Colonna family the Ghibelines, declared enemies of the Holy See, held Rome. Boniface was compelled to modify his bull, and allowed Philip to levy subsidies on the French clergy. He reconciled Philip with the King of England, dropped the subject of the Count of Flanders, and solemnly canonized King Louis IX., Philip's grandfather. Thereupon the French monarch resumed relations with the Holy See. The Colonnas were defeated. The pope published the first secular jubilee for the year 1300, and so great was the throng of pilgrims to Rome that a breach had to be opened in the city's walls to let them through.

3. Renewal of the Quarrel (1301-1303).—The Colonnas,

Describe the reign of Philip the Fair. What action did Boniface VIII. take?
2. How did Philip retaliate? What was Philip's power? How stood Rome?
On what conditions was reconciliation with the pope effected?

banished from Rome, found refuge with Philip, who soon broke his engagements with the Holy Father. His demands, like his actions, were most arbitrary and completely incompatible either with the dignity of the Holy See or the freedom of the Church in his dominions. In a forged bull he professed to discover aggressions on the part of the pope against the liberties of the French nation and crown. The States-General were asked to maintain "the ancient liberties of the nation" (1302). The nobility and commons promised whatever was asked, and the clergy also yielded. The pope made clear the relations of the Papacy with temporal princes in the celebrated bull *Unam sanctam*, and in the Council of Rome repudiated the construction put upon his words by Philip IV. (1302).

4. Outrage on Boniface.—Despite the king's prohibition thirty-nine French bishops attended the council. A second assembly of the States-General, convoked at the Louvre (1303), declared Boniface VIII. a usurper and a heretic. The king was entreated to call a general council for the election of a legitimate pope. Philip consented to his own suggestion, and his summons was responded to by many in his own dominions. He sent William of Nogaret to notify the pope. Nogaret seized the person of the Holy Father, then eighty-six, at Anagni, his native place, where he had taken refuge. He received the invaders seated on his throne, attended only by two cardinals. He was loaded with insult until the citizens, rising up, drove out the troops of Nogaret and trampled the banner of France in the mud. Taken back to Rome in triumph, the Roman nobles held him in bondage under pretext of protection, till at last the venerable old man was relieved by death (1303).

5. The Holy See transferred to Avignon.—Benedict XI.

3. What caused the renewal of the struggle between the pope and Philip? What was the bull *Unam sanctam*? 4. What action did the French States-General take? What of William of Nogaret? How did the Pope die?

succeeded. To secure his independence he left Rome, and to appease Philip revoked the censures pronounced against him. After excommunicating Nogaret he suddenly expired, by poison, as some say, at Perugia (1304). Ten months later Bertrand de Got, Archbishop of Bordeaux, was elected by the conclave and crowned at Lyons under the name of Clement V. As Rome was in revolt he fixed his residence at Avignon, whereby the Papacy lost much of its prestige under the idea that it was little more than an appanage of France.

6. Suppression of the Templars.—France restricted as far as it could the pope's actions. Clement convoked the Fifteenth Œcumenical Council at Vienne (1311). Boniface VIII., in contradiction to the expressed wish of Philip, was declared to be a legitimate and orthodox pope. Philip himself was once more absolved. He had arrested all the Knights Templars he could find in his kingdom in 1307. He now urged their trial. Examination showed that the order had become enormously wealthy, and with wealth enormously corrupt. It was therefore suppressed in the council (1312). Philip had the grand master, Jacques Molay, burned (1314). The possessions of the Templars were transferred to the Knights Hospitalers by papal bull, but the king kept most of what he had confiscated.

7. Troubles in Rome.—The popes at Avignon were anxious for a new crusade against the Mohammedans and for a reconciliation with the Greek Church. But they strove vainly to bring about peace in the West, particularly in Italy. The emperors of Germany kept alive the disturbances of the Ghibelines in the peninsula. The struggle between the German princes and the popes was closed by Clement VI. (1342-1352).

5. What of Benedict XI.? How came the popes to Avignon? The result?
6. What of the Council of Vienne? Describe the suppression of the Knights Templars. 7. What hindered a new crusade? Who ended the struggle?

8. Rienzi (1347).—Meanwhile Rome, deserted by the popes, had passed into the hands of the factious nobles, who harassed the people on every side. Fired with indignation, Nicholas Rienzi, a young Roman, son of a tavern-keeper, but a man of good education, resolved on lifting up his country to its ancient splendor. His fiery eloquence and noble bearing caught the hearts of the people, who at his summons followed him to the Capitol and there proclaimed the republic of the “Good State.” Rienzi was declared “Tribune and Liberator of Rome.” His rule was at first of the best. He restored peace in the city, kept the nobles in their castles, and invited the other cities of Italy to join in establishing the republic. Then he lost his head, became vain-glorious, weak, voluptuous, and tyrannical, and after a reign of seven months was abandoned by the people, leaving Rome in a worse condition than ever.

9. The Holy See restored to Rome.—The nobles resumed their tyranny, and the terrible black plague devastated the city. Pope Innocent VI. (1352-1362) opened negotiations for the re-establishment of the papal authority in Rome. But Rienzi, who had been pardoned by the pope, once more led the people after him and resumed his sway, only to lose both it and his life at the hands of the populace, incensed at his tyranny (1354). Finally, owing to the skill of Cardinal Albornoz, Pope Urban V. quitted France and entered Rome in triumph (1367). But returning again to France, the renewed glory of the Papacy waned, especially when at his death another Frenchman (the third in thirty years) was elected to succeed him with the title of Gregory XI. Gregory set out for Rome, where he was received with tumultuous acclaim by the people (1377). The

8. Who was Rienzi, and what was his ambition? What position did he attain? Describe his rule. 9. What followed the fall of Rienzi? What finally befell Rienzi? How came the popes back to Rome?

country, however, continued disturbed and in a state of revolt. The Roman nobles were averse to surrendering their power, and Gregory sank under the weight of his woes (1378).

SECTION II. The Great Schism (1378-1417).

10. Urban VI.—In electing a successor to Gregory XI. the cardinals were divided into three parties. The people clamored for a Roman pope. Finally most of the votes were cast for Bartholomew Prignano, Archbishop of Bari, a Neapolitan, who took the name of Urban VI. The choice was favorably received by the people and by all Christendom.

11. Clement VII.—Urban's method of reform displeased the cardinals, who fled to Anagni, taking with them the pontifical tiara. There they declared his election null and the Holy See vacant. Urban proposed to submit his claims to the decision of a general council. They would not hear him, but nominated Robert of Geneva, who took the name of Clement VII. (1378), though he had previously written to several princes notifying them of the lawful election of Urban VI. Urban excommunicated the anti-pope and all his adherents. Clement retired to Avignon (1379), where he was acknowledged as legitimate successor of the popes who had previously dwelt there.

12. Anarchy in Christendom.—France, Scotland, Spain, Savoy, Naples, and the kingdom of Cyprus declared for Clement; England, Portugal, the Netherlands, nearly all Italy, Germany, Hungary, Poland, and the Scandinavian states for Urban. This was the signal for a long series of disorders and scandals never known before in Christendom. The popes anathematized one another and levied troops

10. Describe the election of Urban VI. 11. What course did the cardinals take? Who was Clement VII. and whither did he retire? 12. How was Europe divided on the question of the Papacy? Describe the general result of the schism,

against each other, granting them the same indulgences as in the Crusades. The strife of the Urbanists and Clementines was carried over the world. The University of Paris strove hard to heal the schism. To Urban succeeded Boniface IX. in 1389. In the interests of the Church and of Christendom he made fair advances towards a settlement, in negotiating which Clement VII. died (1394).

13. The Council of Pisa.—The Clementine cardinals elected a successor under the name of Benedict XIII. He refused all compromise, and Innocent VII., who succeeded Boniface, was equally obstinate. His successor, Gregory XII. (1406), was desirous of restoring peace, but Benedict was unyielding. Then a council was agreed upon by the cardinals of both sides. About a hundred bishops assembled at Pisa, and two hundred by proxy, Gregory and Benedict refusing to appear. The council declared itself œcumenical, pronounced the deposition of both popes and the vacancy of the Holy See (1409). The cardinals elected Alexander V. as pope, which, instead of mending matters, simply placed a third pope in the field.

14. End of the Great Schism; Election of Martin V. (1417).—At the solicitation of the Emperor Sigismund, John XXIII., who had succeeded Alexander V. in 1410, convoked a general council at Constance (1414). The emperor, with a vast number of the faithful of all ranks and more than one hundred and fifty prelates, attended. Five nations were represented: Italy, Germany, France, England, and Spain. The right to vote was extended to simple ecclesiastics, doctors, princes, and their representatives, which brought the number up to eighteen thousand. Voting went by nation. It was agreed to demand the absolute abdication of all three popes. John XXIII.

How did Boniface IX. act? 13. To what agreement did the cardinals finally come? What was done at the Council of Pisa? 14. Describe the Council of Constance. What was the demand of the council?

refused and fled. Brought back and deposed, he renounced a title which he declared had never left him a happy day. Gregory XII., after annulling the acts of the popes of Avignon and Bologna, confirmed all his own and his predecessors' acts, convoked the council, and then laid aside the pontifical dignity for ever. The obstinate Benedict XIII. was deposed and Cardinal Otto Colonna elected with the title of Martin V. (1417).

15. Wickliffe and Huss.—Benedict XIII. continued to call himself pope, but his successor finally acknowledged Martin V. The council also condemned the heresy started by John Wickliffe in England, and which had begun to spread through Bohemia and the adjacent countries. Its leader in Bohemia was John Huss, rector of the University of Prague. He denied the lawfulness of indulgences, the primacy of the popes, the infallibility of the Church, the right of the clergy to possess temporalities, the power of forgiving sins, and the honor due saints and holy images, admitting no other authority than Holy Scripture as interpreted by reason alone.

16. Death of Huss.—These doctrines produced great disturbance in Bohemia. John Huss, cited by the council, appeared and pleaded his cause. He was convicted of error and imprisoned. His writings, with those of Wickliffe, were publicly burnt. Refusing to retract, he was degraded from holy orders and given up to the magistrates of Constance, who, in accordance with the laws of the empire, condemned him to be burnt. His disciple, Jerome of Prague, shared his fate. His followers, the Hussites, took up arms and ravaged Bohemia and the neighboring countries.

17. Eugenius IV. (1431-1447) and the Council of Basle.

Give the decisions of the Council of Constance. 15. What heresy was condemned by the council? What did Huss teach? 16. How was Huss dealt with? Who shared his fate? What of Huss' followers?

—A new council, convoked at Basle by Martin V., was opened by his successor, Eugenius IV. (1431). The Hussite heresy was condemned, but in the questions of reform in the Church and reconciliation with the Greeks the assembly was at variance with the Sovereign Pontiff. The Council of Constance had set its authority and that of all councils above that of the Holy See. This claim was now renewed, the pope protesting. Other inroads were made on papal authority. Eugenius transferred the council to Ferrara. He was condemned for contumacy, as a disturber of the peace and an obstinate heretic, and was declared to have forfeited the pontifical dignity. A little conclave pretended to elect a new pope in the person of Amadeus VIII., who had renounced the dukedom of Savoy to become a monk. He was named Felix V. (1439).

18. The Schism ended.—New confusions arose in Christendom. The Catholic sovereigns seized the opportunity to enforce several schismatical decrees of the Council of Basle. Thus Germany had its “Pragmatic Sanction,” and France the same, published at Bourges and called the “Liberties of the Gallican Church.” The pope excommunicated the members of the conclave, annulled its decrees, and transferred the Council of Ferrara to Florence. His object was to bring about reunion between the Eastern and Western churches. The emperor, John Palæologus, the patriarch of Constantinople, and the most learned prelates of the Eastern Empire were present. After long discussions the Greeks and Latins made the same profession of faith (1439). Ten years later Felix V. abdicated all his claims. Eugenius’ successor, Nicholas V. (1447-1455), healed the schism wholly and formed a

17. What happened at the Council of Basle? How did the pope act? Who was Felix V.? 18. How did the sovereigns use the Council of Basle? What action did the pope take? Describe the Council of Florence.

concordat with the German emperor, whom he solemnly crowned in Rome (1452). This was the last coronation of the kind there. Next year came news of the fall of Constantinople, and the advance of the Turks was met by the weakness and divisions among Christian peoples engendered by the great schism.

CHAPTER II.

FRANCE AND ENGLAND—THE HUNDRED YEARS' WAR.

SECTION I. The Last Capets.

1. **France under the Capets.**—Philip III. (1270-1285), the successor of St. Louis, honorably ended the last Crusade. He engaged in unsuccessful wars with Castile and Aragon, but, by his brother's death, added to his inheritance the county of Toulouse and won Joanna, the heiress of Navarre and Champagne, for his son, Philip IV., the Fair (1285-1314). Philip was constantly occupied with wars of spoliation. But the English beat him from their possessions in France, and, though he despoiled and imprisoned Guy of Flanders (1297), the Flemings rose and destroyed the French army at Courtrai (1302). Philip was finally compelled to evacuate the country, save Lille and other fortified towns of French Flanders.

2. **Philip and his Successors.**—The kingdom of Philip the Fair stretched from the Rhone to the Mediterranean, from the Atlantic to the Scheldt. He was a powerful monarch and made his will law at home; but he sorely oppressed his people with taxes. The latter years of his

Describe the condition of Christendom at the fall of Constantinople. 1. For what is the reign of Philip III. remarkable? What was the result of the wars with England and Flanders? 2. Give extent of Philip the Fair's dominions.

reign were given to a relentless struggle with the Holy See and the ruin of the Templars. His three sons during a space of fourteen years successively filled the throne, and after the death of Charles IV. the crown of France passed to the house of Valois (1328).

3. Edward I. of England (1272-1307); Conquest of Wales (1283).—Edward I. had to restore England from the evils into which the long civil wars in the reign of his father had plunged her. The stubborn Welsh had always been a source of trouble to England. Edward, on the outbreak of their prince, Llewellyn, marched into Wales, slew the prince, and routed his army (1283). He then proceeded to conciliate the people, and wholly won them over by presenting them with a Welsh prince, his infant son, born during the campaign. From that day forth the male heir to the English crown has borne the title of Prince of Wales.

4. Conquest of Scotland.—Edward next turned to Scotland, where there was contention for the crown between John Baliol and Robert Bruce, the royal line having become extinct in the person of Alexander III. (1286). Edward, chosen arbiter, decided in favor of Baliol on condition that the latter professed himself his vassal. Baliol, aided by Philip the Fair, afterwards attempted to shake off the yoke, but was defeated and taken prisoner (1297). Edward became master of Scotland, but the tyranny of his government caused a revolt, headed by William Wallace. Wallace won many victories, and would have gained the battle of Falkirk had he not been deserted by his cavalry, composed mainly of Scottish nobles. Betrayed at last, he was taken to London and there beheaded (1305). Robert Bruce, grandson of Baliol's competitor, took up the popular cause,

What marked the close of Philip's reign? Who succeeded him? 3. Describe the conquest of Wales by Edward I. 4. How came Edward into Scotland? Who led the revolt against him? What befell Wallace?

after having been an ally of the English. Bruce being proclaimed King of Scotland (1306), Edward was advancing against him when he died.

5. Edward II. (1307-1327).—Edward's son, Edward II., was weak and irresolute. He gave himself up to favorites and foolish pleasures. Piers Gaveston, the most obnoxious of his favorites, was taken and slain by the barons. They then marched north against the Scots, dragging the king with them. Bruce met them at Bannockburn, and, with inferior forces, inflicted on them an overwhelming defeat (1314), which secured the independence of his country. Famine racked England, while Edward gave himself up to two new favorites, the Spencers. His queen, Isabella, led a party against him, and, finding himself deserted, he abdicated (1327). Parliament entrusted the government to the Prince of Wales. The king was soon afterwards found murdered.

6. Philip VI. (1328-1350) and Edward III. (1327-1377).—The Capet line was extinguished in the person of Charles the Fair, and Philip, Count of Valois, grandson of Philip III., was chosen King of France. He annexed the province of Champagne, and assisted the Count of Flanders against his revolted subjects, whom he reduced at Cassel (1328). He had for rival Edward III., the young King of England, who himself had pretensions to the French throne. Edward was as wise as he was courageous and skilful. He shook off the influence of his mother, Isabella, and her favorite, Mortimer, who was hanged. Isabella was imprisoned for her crimes to the term of her natural life. The death of Bruce (1329) delivered Scotland over to anarchy. David, his son, a child of four, was crowned, but Edward Baliol, son of John Baliol, aided by Edward, who beat the

What of Robert Bruce? 5. Did Edward II. resemble his father? What occurred at Bannockburn? Describe Edward's reign and end. 6. Who succeeded Charles IV. of France? What rivalry arose between France and England?

Scots at Halidon Hill (1333), ascended the throne as vassal to the King of England.

7. Battle of Crécy.—Flanders was drawn into the disputes between Edward and the King of France. England fomented the trouble between the Flemings and the French. An insurrection broke out in Ghent under Jacob van Arteveld, head of the trades-guilds of the city. It soon spread to other cities, and in a short time Arteveld was ruler of Flanders. Meanwhile Edward had declared war (1337) and landed with his army in France. The fleet that should have intercepted him was destroyed in Sluys harbor (1340). The war is chiefly memorable for the famous victory of Crécy (1346), where Edward's son, the Black Prince, won his spurs, the French sustaining an overwhelming defeat. This victory gave Calais into the English hands, thus supplying them with an easy landing-place in France.

8. Defeat of the Scots.—In Scotland the Bruce party had triumphed and Baliol was driven from the throne. Edward being absent, the Scotch, at the instigation of Philip, invaded England, but were defeated at Nevil's Cross (1346), and David, taken prisoner, was lodged in the Tower of London. The black plague had reached France and was decimating the country. Philip died, leaving his kingdom in a sad plight. During his reign France acquired Dauphiny, and thenceforth the heir to the French crown was called the Dauphin, that being a condition of its cession.

9. John II. and Edward III. (1350-1364).—Philip's son, John, called the Good, ascended a troubled throne. The States-General wished to limit the royal authority. Some of the great vassals of the king intrigued with the English, Edward having, even in Philip's time, proclaimed himself King of France and quartered the lilies on his arms. John

Describe the troubles in Scotland. 7. What occurred in Flanders? Tell of Crécy and its result. 8. What of Nevil's Cross? How did Philip leave France? 9. What difficulties had John II. to encounter?

had the King of Navarre imprisoned, and while occupying his domains the Black Prince advanced from Bordeaux into the very heart of France. John met him at Poitiers with an overwhelming force. Bad generalship and overweening confidence lost the French the day, and the result was a more disastrous defeat than at Crécy. John was taken prisoner, sent to England, and confined in the Tower.

10. Troubles in France.—France was in desperate straits. Charles, the Dauphin, summoned the States-General, who were more intent on profiting by the situation than remedying it. A popular party rose up under the lead of Stephen Marcel, a Paris merchant, who was assassinated (1358) in consequence of the betrayal of the army by Charles of Navarre. A revolt of the peasants, called the “*Jacquerie*,” occurred and added to the confusion. Charles gradually restored order and refused to ransom the king at the price of the territory once possessed by the English. Edward again invaded the country, but to little purpose. At the treaty of Bretigny (1360) he abandoned Poitou, Saintonge, and Limousin. John was conditionally liberated, but, being unable to pay his ransom, gave himself again into Edward’s hands. He died in captivity.

11. Charles V. and Edward III. (1364-1380).—Charles, the Dauphin, had long been king in fact, and his wisdom had retrieved many of the French disasters. On ascending the throne he set Du Guesclin, the famous Breton captain, at the head of his armies. France had for years been raided by the Free Companies—armed mercenaries who sold their services to the highest bidders and engaged in many a fray on their own account. Du Guesclin gathered an army of them, which he led into Spain, thus

Describe the battle of Poitiers. 10. What was the condition of France? Who restored order? What was the treaty of Bretigny? 11. How did Charles V. begin his reign? What of Du Guesclin and the Free Companies?

ridding the country of them. He set Henry of Transtamare on the throne of Castile. The exactions of the Black Prince had created great discontent among the Aquitanians. Sickness compelled him to return to England, and his successors were powerless against the skill and valor of Du Guesclin, who soon captured all their strongholds save Bordeaux, Bayonne, and Calais. He died soon after, and Charles shortly followed his brave Constable to the tomb. Edward III. lived long enough to see his troops driven from France and the Black Prince snatched from him by death.

SECTION II. Anarchy in England and France.

12. Richard II. (1377-1399); Wickliffe.—Richard, son of the Black Prince, was only eleven when he ascended the throne. His four uncles ruled England for their own benefit. The greed of these men and the long wars made the English people restive. Discontent had been growing, and it was fanned by the dangerous teachings of Wickliffe, which were similar to those of John Huss. He was protected by Edward III., who refused to pay the customary tribute to Rome. Wickliffe taught that none but those who are sinless have a right to hold property or office. A poll-tax being imposed, the people were driven to desperation (1381). They were harangued by John Ball, a preacher and a Wickliffite, who taught that all things should be held in common and that all should occupy the same social rank.

13. Wat Tyler's Insurrection.—Wat Tyler, an Essex smith, slew a brutal tax-gatherer, and the angered people flew to arms. At the head of a hundred thousand men Tyler marched on London, killing the officials and plun-

Describe Du Guesclin's campaigns. How did the English invasion end? 12. Who succeeded Edward III.? How was England ruled? Tell of Wickliffe's teachings and their result. 13. Tell of Wat Tyler's insurrection.

dering the castles on their route. London fell into their hands and was ravaged. The Archbishop of Canterbury was slain. To save the city the king invited Tyler to a conference. They met at Smithfield, the royal party being few and Tyler leading twenty thousand of his followers. While talking to the king Tyler was stabbed by Sir William Walworth, the lord mayor of London. The courage of Richard saved his party from destruction. Riding up to the people, he proclaimed himself their leader and they followed the gallant boy. He promised them redress and the rebellion was quelled. The ring-leaders were executed, and a synod in London (1382) pronounced formal censure on Wickliffe, to whose teachings the revolt was attributed.

14. Richard deposed.—The affairs of the kingdom did not progress favorably. Richard, never master of himself, had to surrender the chief power to his uncle Gloucester (1386), whose exactions and cruelty were felt in all the land. The Parliament became his pliant tool. In 1389 the general discontent afforded Richard an opportunity of re-establishing his authority. Peace and prosperity came back, but the barons felt and resented their loss of power. The Duke of Gloucester raised a revolt, was arrested, taken to Calais, and there murdered. Richard assailed all his foes in turn and confiscated the inheritance of his uncle, the Duke of Lancaster, whose son Henry he banished. Henry, returning secretly and having a strong party at his back, raised the standard of revolt. The king, betrayed, was imprisoned and forced to abdicate.

15. Henry IV. (1399-1413).—Henry of Lancaster, a grandson of Edward III., seized the crown and was pro-

Describe the proceedings of the rebels and the end of the revolt. 14. How did affairs progress in England? What action did Richard take? Who led the revolt against the king?

claimed king (1399). Richard was found dead in prison. A party took up arms for the house of Clarence, to whom the throne by right reverted, but they were defeated at Shrewsbury (1403). Henry then reduced Wales and fastened the English hold on Scotland.

16. The State of Scotland.—David Bruce, set free by Edward III., had no children. He left the kingdom to his nephew, Robert Stuart (1371-1390). His successor, Robert III. (1390-1405), was a tool in the hands of the Scotch lords. His son was captured by the English and kept in custody by Henry IV. The father died of grief, and Scotland was given up to anarchy.

17. Charles VI. (1380-1422).—Charles VI. was a boy of twelve when called to succeed his father on the throne of France. His uncles ruled the realm for their own aggrandizement. The times were troubled in all Christendom. Schism and corruption were doing their work. There was sedition in Paris, and Flanders, which had been subdued, again rose under Philip van Arteveld, a son of Jacob, who had been slain as a traitor by his own townsmen. Philip, after holding his power a long while, was defeated and slain at Rosebecque (1382). Charles restored order in his kingdom and chose ministers in place of his uncles. Losing his reason (1392), his uncles again seized the power. They quarrelled among themselves, and the country had to bear the penalty of their personal jealousies and revenges.

18. Henry V. (1413-1422); Agincourt.—Henry IV. of England died after a short reign. His son, Henry V., succeeded him. He had been a wild youth, but on ascending the throne he rose to the responsibility of his office and was loved by the people. His father had

15. Who was proclaimed king? What followed the proclamation? 16. Describe the course of events in Scotland. 17. Describe events in France and Flanders during the reign of Charles VI. 18. What of Henry V. of England?

advised him that the best way to secure the throne to his house was by a war with France. Henry embarked at the head of a gallant army to claim the French crown. A victory at Agincourt was similar in its character and its results to those of Crécy and Poitiers. France was in convulsion, owing to the jealousies of the rival houses of Burgundy and Armagnac. The Burgundians took Paris (1418) and slew the Count of Armagnac and his partisans. Affairs went from bad to worse. There were slaughterings, revolts, seditions on all sides, when Henry of England married the daughter of Charles VI., and was acknowledged heir presumptive to the crown to the exclusion of the Dauphin. But the premature death of both sovereigns put an end to this scheme.

19. Henry VI. (1422-1471); Charles VII. (1422-1461); Joan of Arc.—Henry VI. was proclaimed king in his cradle, his uncles, the Dukes of Bedford and Gloucester, acting as protectors. The Dauphin, Charles, was proclaimed king of France, of which he only held a portion. The English passed over the land as they pleased. Suddenly at Orleans a young peasant girl, Joan of Arc, sought the king and announced that Heaven had commissioned her to free Orleans and have him crowned at Rheims (1429). And so events proved. Joan rallied France and beat the English. The king was crowned at Rheims, and Charles, refusing to lose Joan's services, kept her with the troops. She was captured while defending Compiègne, found guilty of witchcraft, and brutally burnt at the stake in Rouen (1431).

20. End of the Hundred Years' War.—Joan had done her work, however. The English were beaten, the factions had ceased in France, and the authority of the throne

19. Why did Henry invade France? What was the result of the invasion? How did the invasion end? 20. What followed in France and England on the deaths of the monarchs? Tell of Joan of Arc and her exploits. What befell her?

was restored. Charles entered Paris in triumph. Peace was made, the English retaining of all their conquests only Guienne and Normandy (1444). Henry VI. married Margaret of Anjou, daughter of René the Good. The marriage, added to the disasters in France, caused great discontent in England. Gloucester's rule was popular, though his administration was bad. He had set James I. of Scotland at liberty (1424). James, in violation of his promise, helped the French and invaded England, when he was slain by his own barons. Gloucester's failures caused his removal from office, and he died in prison. Next Normandy fell to the French (1450), and Talbot, Earl of Shrewsbury, was slain in a vain attempt to save Guienne (1453). To England there now only remained Calais at the close of the Hundred Years' War.

21. Jack Cade.—De la Pole, Henry's minister, was accused of treason and perished on the scaffold. An insurrection arose under the leadership of Jack Cade, an Irish adventurer, who defeated the royal troops at Blackheath. He entered London and held it for days. But dissensions broke out among his followers; they dispersed and he was slain. Richard, Duke of York, now claimed the throne, his mother being daughter of the Duke of Clarence. With this originated the Wars of the Roses, so called from the symbols of the rival houses of York and Lancaster, and English civil strife began just as that in France had ceased and the kingdom was quieting down under a strong and wise rule.

What was the result of Joan's heroism? Give the course of events in England and Scotland. The result to England of the Hundred Years' War? 21. What of Jack Cade? How did the Wars of the Roses originate?

CHAPTER III.

GERMANY, SWITZERLAND, AND ITALY.

THE imperial power in Germany is frittered away by divisions and the multiplication of fiefs. Three families especially contend for it, and it finally falls to the House of Austria. Switzerland secures its freedom and becomes a republic. Italy shakes aloof from the empire and divides up into independent republics and monarchies.

SECTION I. Germany.

1. Rudolph of Hapsburg (1273-1291).—The disturbances and long vacancy in the Holy See only corresponded to similar disturbances and a long interregnum in the Romano-Germanic Empire. Gregory X. (1271-1276) came to the rescue of the Church, while Rudolph of Hapsburg (1273-1291) tried to restore the empire. Rudolph was elected emperor and crowned at Aix-la-Chapelle. He put a stop to private feuds and demolished the castles of the refractory nobles. Public tranquillity was restored and the union of the Papacy and empire cemented.

2. House of Austria.—Ottocar II. (1253-1278), King of Bohemia, and master of Austria, Styria, Carinthia, and Carniola, protested against the election of Rudolph. Vanquished, he was forced to surrender his possessions, save Bohemia and Moravia. He again took up arms, but was defeated and slain at Marchfeld (1278). Rudolph married one of his daughters to Ottocar's heir, giving Austria and the surrounding countries to his eldest son, Albert. Thus began the powerful house of Austria.

3. Albert of Austria.—On Rudolph's death his eldest son was set aside in favor of Adolph of Nassau, a petty prince, who was deposed by the diet and slain by Albert of Austria,

1. How fared Italy and Germany? What of Rudolph of Hapsburg and his work? 2. Who opposed Rudolph and with what result? How did the house of Austria begin? 3. What happened on the death of Rudolph?

who bought his election. Once elected, he strove to indemnify himself by violence and exaction. Switzerland, weary of the Hapsburgs, strove to throw off the yoke. Albert was assassinated by his nephew, John of Suabia (1308).

4. Houses of Wittelsbach (1314-1410) and Luxembourg (1308-1437).—The Count of Luxembourg was next chosen and elected under the name of Henry VII. (1308-1313). He endowed his family with the hereditary kingdom of Bohemia, which for more than a century constituted their support. He mixed himself up in the Guelph and Ghibeline contest in Italy, and obtained the imperial crown, but lost his life in the acquisition (1313). His son, John of Bohemia, who afterwards fell at Crécy, cared less for the empire than for deeds of arms. He left the crown to be contended for by Frederick, son of Albert of Austria, and Louis of Bavaria. Louis finally conquered on the field of Mühldorf (1322); Frederick and one of his brothers were made prisoners, and Louis was recognized as emperor. The pope, John XXII., forbade him exercise any act of authority before presenting himself before the pontiff, that his election might be examined and his cause judged. Such a demand was not without precedent, and the papal decision in such matters was a preventive of wars. Louis was willing enough, but some of his supporters were not. A rupture occurred. The pope excommunicated and deposed Louis. Louis effected a reconciliation with his rival, whom he made his colleague, and, passing into Italy, mixed himself up with Italian quarrels and set up an anti-pope (1327).

5. For twenty years there was enmity between Louis and Avignon. There were leagues formed against him in Germany, and John of Bohemia, who had lost his sight but not his warlike spirit, took arms against him. Louis was

4. What of Henry VII. and Bohemia? What befell him in Italy? What followed on his death? What action did the pope take? How did Louis act?

5. What resulted from the quarrel between pope and emperor?

struck with apoplexy (1347), leaving the field open to various aspirants. His family stood aloof. Half a century later (1400) a member of his house of Wittelsbach, Robert, his great-grandnephew, became emperor. Before and after him came princes of the house of Luxembourg.

6. The Golden Bull (1356); Charles IV. and his two Sons (1349-1437).—A year before the death of Louis some of the electors had enthroned Charles of Luxembourg, son of John of Bohemia. He was only recognized three years later, his competitors then retiring. He enriched his hereditary kingdom of Bohemia, built magnificent palaces in Prague, his capital, erected an archiepiscopal see there and a flourishing university. He was an enlightened monarch; loved science and letters, and often attended the public discussions. During his reign the kingdom of Arles was lost to Germany and given to the Dauphin of France, the emperor's nephew. In Italy the regal rights were alienated. In Germany the "Golden Bull," so called from its seal, sanctioned the independence of the great vassals of the crown. It was promulgated by Charles in the diet of Metz (1356). It reduced the number of electors to seven—the three archbishops of Cologne, Mayence, and Treves, the King of Bohemia, the Duke of Saxony, the Margrave of Brandenburg, and the Count Palatine of the Rhine. The electoral territories were declared indivisible, the persons of the electors inviolable, their sentences irrevocable. They could convene without the consent of the prince, to resist, judge, and depose him.

7. Charles himself was elector as King of Bohemia; his youngest son, Sigismund, as Margrave of Brandenburg. To secure the empire to Wenceslaus, his eldest son,

6. What was the character of Charles IV.? For what is his reign memorable? What was the "Golden Bull"? What were the provisions of the Golden Bull? Did it tend to weaken or strengthen imperial authority?

Charles bribed the other electors at a cost of one hundred thousand florins. Wenceslaus was made emperor, only to be deposed for his misconduct by virtue of the very provisions of his father's "Golden Bull."

8. Anarchy.—Wenceslaus (1378-1400) was in every sense a bad sovereign. He sanctioned private feuds, lived a shameless life, and martyred St. John Nepomuk for refusing to disclose the secrets of the confessional (1393). Being deposed by the majority of the electors, Robert of Bavaria was chosen in his place. Robert was defeated in Italy, and, finding Germany beyond his control, died of grief (1410). Three rival emperors succeeded him—Wenceslaus of Bohemia, his brother Sigismund, and their cousin-german, Josse of Moravia—each controlling a number of votes. At this time, too, there were three popes in the field. The death of Josse prevented the outbreak of a bloody war. Wenceslaus ceded his rights to his brother, who was then accepted by all (1411).

9. War of the Hussites (1416-1434); the Emperor Sigismund (1411-1437).—Sigismund was anxious to restore unity to the Church. Through his aid the Council of Constance was convened, which healed the schism. The sentence of the council on John Huss and Jerome of Prague roused their party in Bohemia and led to a general outbreak. Ziska the One-eyed, a veteran soldier, took command of the heretics and organized them into a formidable force. They built a city on a mountain near Prague, which they called Tabor and themselves Taborites, the Catholics being Philistines, Idumeans, or Moabites. They fell upon Prague and sacked it, committing fearful atrocities. Wenceslaus died at the news (1419). Sigismund was routed by Ziska at Deutschbrod. Ziska

7. How did Wenceslaus come to the throne? 8. Describe the reign of Wenceslaus. What of Robert of Bavaria and his successors? 9. What was Sigismund's desire? How did the Hussites receive the decision of the Council of Constance?

then offered the crown of Bohemia to King Jagellon of Poland, a recent convert, but Jagellon refused it.

10. Peace of Iglau.—Ziska maintained his power till his death (1424), after which dissensions crept in among the ranks of his followers. They split into four parties, the most fanatical choosing Procopius Raza as leader. He gained three great victories over the Catholic crusaders and imperialists. The Council of Basle granted the use of the chalice to the most moderate of the Bohemians, one of whose demands was for communion in both kinds. This won them over to the Catholic cause, and they, the Calixtines, undertook to vanquish their brethren. This they effected at Boehmischbrod, verifying the saying of Sigismund that “only Bohemians can beat Bohemians.” The peace of Iglau put an end to a war that, like all religious wars, was characterized by the most inhuman atrocities (1434).

11. Albert II.—Sigismund died soon after. Though the last of the Luxembourgs, three existing reigning families owe their fortune to him: those of Saxony, Hohenzollern, and Austria. He wedded his daughter to Albert V. of Austria, who succeeded him on the thrones of Bohemia and Hungary (1437), and in the following year received the imperial crown as Albert II. From that day Austria maintained the pre-eminence in Germany down to the war of 1866. Albert opposed the private wars, and in the diet of Nuremberg had the empire divided into six circuits, with an independent and strongly-supported judge at the head to maintain or enforce peace. He was about to attack the Turks with the full force of the empire when he died (1439). His posthumous son inherited his kingdom, but the empire fell to his cousin, Frederick III.

10. What happened on the death of Ziska? What concession was made at the Council of Basle? What was the result of the concession? 11. How did Austria gain preponderance in Germany? Describe the reign of Albert II.

(1440-1493), whose long reign was of great benefit to Germany.

SECTION II. Switzerland and Italy.

12. Liberation of Switzerland (1307-1450).—Switzerland enters into prominence in European history at the last epoch of the middle ages, during the interregnum in the German Empire. When the house of Hohenstaufen fell (1268) all its vassals swore fealty to the emperor. Many petty Swiss nobles, favored by their natural situation, maintained a practical independence, which they jealously guarded. Rudolph of Hapsburg was one of these. His virtues and ability caused him to be chosen magistrate by his neighboring nobles and cities, and by the peasants of the three forest cantons of Schwytz, Uri, and Unterwalden. When elected to the empire Rudolph respected the liberties of his former clients. But after his death his son Albert, driven from the throne and not content with Austria, looked upon his father's Swiss clients as his own subjects. On becoming emperor he sent bailiffs into the cantons, whose exactions so exasperated the Swiss that they rose and finally succeeded in expelling the Austrians (1308).

13. Battle of Morgarten.—When Louis of Bavaria succeeded to the empire he sanctioned the league of the three cantons and guaranteed their liberties, they supporting him against his rival, Frederick the Handsome, son of Albert of Austria. Frederick sent his brother Leopold, at the head of an overwhelming force, to reduce them. The invaders were caught and destroyed in the defile of Morgarten (1315). Peace being made, the three cantons formed a perpetual league for mutual defence and pro-

12. Describe the condition of Switzerland in the thirteenth century. What of Rudolph of Hapsburg and the Swiss? What followed on Rudolph's death?

13. Tell of the battle of Morgarten and the league of the three cantons.

tection. The league was sanctioned by the Emperor Louis.

14. Sempach and Næfels.—The other cantons entered the league gradually. In 1353 there were eight of them. They so continued to the close of mediæval times, when the number was increased to thirteen, and in modern times to twenty-two. The dukes of Austria viewed with jealous eye the growth of a confederation that was a constant menace to them. Leopold, a nephew of him who was beaten at Morgarten, gathered his knights against them, but was routed and slain near Sempach (Lucerne, 1386). Three years later another victory at Næfels (Glaris) secured the independence of the confederation and forced Duke Albert III. to sign the peace of Zurich (1389).

15. Internal Dissensions.—There were now eight confederate cantons. So much fighting gave them a love for war, and, having defeated the invader, they quarrelled among themselves. Zurich joined Austria under Frederick III. (1442), and the Swiss were defeated by the allies under command of the French Dauphin, after an heroic struggle near Basle (1444). An honorable peace was the result, and after this the Swiss held together against Charles the Bold, and later still against Maximilian.

SECTION III. Italy: Struggle of the Guelphs and Ghibelines.

16. Plans of the Guelphs.—The purpose of the Italian Guelphs was to secure the independence of Italy while acknowledging the suzerainty of the empire, and to maintain local freedom and self-government to their cities and states. Italian history during this period is one long struggle against the German Empire, supported on the soil

14. How did the league of the cantons expand? What happened at Sempach and Næfels? 15. What dissensions arose in Switzerland? Against whom did the Swiss contend? 16. What was the purpose of the Guelphs in Italy?

by a party which power and intrigue can always command. Pope Gregory X. tried to reconcile the two parties, and under the mild sway of Rudolph of Hapsburg thought to establish a general confederation of the Italian states under the presidency of the popes and the temporal direction of an imperial delegate.

17. The Sicilian Vespers.—The narrowness and cruelty of Charles of Anjou, vicegerent of Central Italy, defeated this wise scheme. His harshness brought on conspiracy, hatched by John of Procida, once the physician of Manfred, the father of the slaughtered Conradin. On Easter Monday, 1282, the sound of the vesper bell was the signal for the outbreak. The people arose and slew the French, the massacre being known as “the Sicilian Vespers.” Charles’ vengeance was foiled. Loria destroyed his fleet, his son was captured, and he himself died soon after. The Ghibeline triumph spread to Milan, to Liguria, in all directions. But the defeat of Pisa by Genoa and Florence brought about a Guelph reaction.

18. Robert of Anjou (1309-1343).—Disturbance and factions among the Ghibelines favored the Guelph reaction. Pedro of Aragon, the ally of John of Procida, restored Sicily to Charles’ son. But the Sicilians, hating the French, crowned Frederick, Pedro’s third son, and his dynasty ruled there for a century. On the death of Charles II. his second son, Robert, was proclaimed king. The Avignon popes appointed the King of Naples imperial vicar in the States of the Church. Thus Robert exercised both the temporal power in Rome and the right of protection throughout Central Italy. Armed with this authority, he strove to recover Sicily, but failed. He was, however, a wise and gentle king, and a great patron of literature and

What was the desire of Gregory X.? 17. Describe the Sicilian Vespers and what led to it. What followed the Vespers? 18. Tell of the struggle between the rival dynasties. Describe the reign of Robert.

the arts. On his death his granddaughter Joanna was crowned Queen of Naples. Her conduct and the struggles of her rivals for the throne racked the kingdom for forty years.

19. The Viscontis.—The wisdom of Cardinal Albornoz saved Rome from the excesses of Rienzi. But further north factions and the tyranny of the powerful nobles had full play. The Viscontis tyrannized in Lombardy. They were finally captured by their nephew, Gian Galeazzo, who, buying the title of Duke of Milan from the Emperor Wenceslaus, governed the city (1385-1402). The Visconti family, always hostile to French influence, appropriated Parma, took Verona, and destroyed the republic of Pavia. They were only checked in their aggrandizing schemes in the west by John Palæologus, Marquis of Montferrat, and in the east by the Este family, lords of Ferrara, the Gonzagas of Mantua, and the growing republic of Venice.

20. The Maritime Cities.—The Crusades favored and developed maritime enterprise in the seaports of the Mediterranean. Pisa, Genoa, and Venice rapidly grew into wealth and power. Pisa, the great Ghibeline city, was destroyed by Florence and her rival, Genoa, at Meloria. Genoa proceeded to extend her sway among the ports of the Levant and of the Black Sea. The restoration of the Greeks favored Genoa as against Venice. The rival cities warred against each other to their mutual detriment, the first war lasting twenty-five years (1257-1282).

21. Venetian Ascendency.—Next century they renewed the struggle in the Black Sea, in which the Genoese gained the victory at Pola. But matters were reversed by the skill of the Venetian admiral, Pisani, who had been impri-

19. Tell of the Viscontis. Describe the troubles in the north of Italy. 20. How did the Crusades help Italy? What cities grew into power in consequence? What dissensions arose? 21. How did Venice triumph?

soned for losing Pola, but was released in time to save his state. He compelled the Genoese to surrender at Chioggia (1380), and the treaty of Turin secured the triumph of the Venetians (1382). His great rivals were the celebrated brothers Doria.

22. Genoa was a turbulent city and never submitted long to any rule. Venice, though nominally a republic, became a powerful aristocracy, extended her sway along the coasts and among the islands, and was only checked on the mainland by the dukes of Milan.

23. Extinction of the Republics; Rise of the Principalities.—Florence long remained the stronghold of the Guelphs, a democratic republic, and an enlightened patron of arts and manufactures. But in the fifteenth century she fell under the control of the powerful Medici family, who practically assumed sovereign sway. Milan in like manner was ruled by the Sforzas, and Rome was threatened by the Neapolitans.

24. Southern Italy was through all this period the battle-ground of rival invaders. Her independent states were divided, and thus left themselves an easy prey to foreign interference. The foreign aspirants to monarchy were for the most part distinguished by shameful lives, varied by cruelty and exactions on the people. Sicily restored monarchical unity in the person of Alfonso, son of Ferdinand of Castile (1412), who in turn transmitted the Two Sicilies to his son Ferdinand (1458).

25. Thus Italy at the close of the middle ages was divided into independent principalities. In the centre of the states the patrimony of St. Peter was the best upholder of republican ideas and the freest from foreign interference.

22. What was the government of Venice? 23. What of Florence and the Medici? What of Milan? 24. How fared Southern Italy and the kingdom of the Two Sicilies? 25. What of Rome?

CHAPTER IV.

SPAIN—THE FIVE KINGDOMS.

THE history of Spain during this period presents an unbroken series of rivalries among the petty kingdoms, with an under tendency towards unity.

1. Kingdom of Navarre.—Northward, on both slopes of the western Pyrenees, lay the little kingdom of Navarre. On the extinction of the national dynasty of Aznar (1234) the counts of Champagne secured the crown by intermarriage. Forty years later another marriage transferred the crown to France. Thus Philip the Fair and his three sons were kings of France and Navarre (1274-1328). For a long period the history of Navarre blends with that of France.

2. Kingdoms of Aragon, Portugal, and Granada.—At the foot of the eastern Pyrenees was the small kingdom of Aragon, which enlarged its borders at the expense of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, and aided by the constant turmoil in Italy. Portugal early devoted itself to agriculture at home, while it greatly enlarged its power and dominion by maritime enterprise. In the southeast of the peninsula the kingdom of Granada, in Andalusia, was all that was left the Mohammedans of their Spanish conquests. Granada would have succumbed earlier only for aid from Africa and the dissensions among the Spanish princes.

3. Kingdom of Castile.—By conquest and inheritance St. Ferdinand had secured to Castile the greater part of Spain, large revenues, and valuable seaports. His son, Alfonso X., the Wise (1252-1284), aspired to the empire of Germany. He was more a man of letters than a ruler, and his people agreed to depose him. This led to civil war.

1. Give the early history of Navarre and its changes. 2. How did Aragon grow? What of Portugal? What was left to the Mohammedans? 3. Who secured the preponderance to Castile? What of Ferdinand's son, Alfonso?

His second son, Sancho, strove for the throne to the exclusion of the eldest line. This involved war with France, while he had already to repel the Moors. Sancho triumphed, but his death and the minority of his son created new disturbances. The young king died (1312) on attaining his majority, leaving the crown to Alfonso XI., a child three years old. More wars ensued; the nobles enriched themselves at the expense of the crown; and the Moors recovered some of their lost ground.

4. Alfonso XI.—When fourteen Alfonso seized the power, massacred several princes, entrusted the finances to a Jew and the administration to two favorites. This was the signal for fresh revolts, when an invasion of the Merinides, invited over by the King of Granada, united the Castilian nobles. Portugal and Castile joined hands against the common enemy, and the allies won a brilliant victory at Rio Salado (1340). Alfonso then returned to his exactions and disorders. After capturing Algeziras he perished under the walls of Gibraltar (1350).

5. Pedro the Cruel (1350-1369).—Alfonso XI. left ten children by his clandestine union with Leonora Guzman. The eldest of these was Henry of Transtamare. His only legitimate son was Pedro, rightly named the Cruel. Nor were his vices restricted to cruelty. He was supported by the Black Prince; but on the retirement of the latter Du Guesclin advanced Henry of Transtamare and set him on the throne of Castile (1369). Pedro was slain by Henry at the battle of Montiel.

6. Pedro's Contemporaries.—It was a period of cruel kings in Spain. Navarre was ruled by Charles the Bad (1349-1386); Aragon had a Pedro IV., cruel as his namesake of Castile. In a turbulent reign of fifty-one years

Describe the civil wars in Castile and their result. 4. How did Alfonso XI. use his power? What befell him? 5. Who succeeded Alfonso? What of Henry of Transtamare? 6. Describe the rulers of Spain and Portugal.

(1336-1387) he prepared the ruin of his race, which became extinct in 1410. Portugal was not behindhand. The harshness of Affonso IV. (1325-1357) drove his son Pedro into revolt, and Affonso died of grief (1357). Pedro made a wise and strong ruler.

7. The House of Transtamare.—After the death of Pedro the Cruel, Henry II. of Transtamare was acknowledged king by all Castile. He had as enemies the King of Portugal, grandson of Alfonso XI., and the dukes of Lancaster and York, who were sons-in-law of Pedro. But he made an ally of France, and his ten years' reign (1369-1379) won for him among his people the title of the Magnificent. His son, Juan I., beat the English at Guienne and the Duke of Lancaster in Spain, but was himself beaten and nearly slain by the Portuguese at Aljubarrota (1385). His death left his son, Henry III. (1390-1406), a minor and exposed Castile to new troubles. Henry gave great promise, but died at the age of twenty-six, and was succeeded by his infant son, Juan II. (1406-1454). The Cortes offered the crown to Henry's brother Ferdinand, but he stood faithful to his trust as guardian. He defeated the Moors in two engagements.

8. Juan II.—Called to the vacant throne of Aragon, Ferdinand confided the regency to the queen mother. The transfer was an evil one. She treated with the Moors, and kept her son so confined as to render him incapable of reigning. His favorite, Alvaro de Luna, came to the front when occasion demanded. He defeated both the Moors and domestic cabals, and ruled with a firm hand for thirty years until his weak master signed his death-warrant (1453). Juan followed him to the grave in the following year and left an equally feeble successor be-

7. What followed on the death of Pedro? What title did Henry earn? Tell of Juan I. What followed on Juan's death? 8. What happened during the minority of Juan II.? Tell of Alvaro de Luna and his fate.

hind him in the person of his son, Henry IV. He left a daughter, however, Isabella, who was destined to retrieve the fortunes of her house and of all Spain.

9. Ferdinand and Isabella.—The dynasty of Aragon became extinct in Martin (1410). After two years the electors, advised by St. Vincent Ferrer, chose Ferdinand, the first regent of Castile, to be their king. Ferdinand reigned in peace over Aragon, Sardinia, and Sicily (1412-1416). He was succeeded by his son, Alfonso V., the Magnanimous (1416-1458), who by conquest and adoption became also King of Naples. Juan, a younger son of Ferdinand, married the daughter of Charles the Noble (1425) and ascended the throne of Navarre, which he refused to relinquish on the death of his wife (1451). As Juan II. the inheritance of his brother Alfonso, who had no legitimate offspring, fell to him. At his death he transmitted his crowns to his youngest son, Ferdinand the Catholic, who had married Isabella of Castile and reigned with her. From this union came the union of Spain, the overthrow of the Moslem power in Spain, and, indirectly, the discovery of the New World (1492).

10. House of Avis in Portugal.—In Portugal the son of Pedro the Just dying without issue, John, the grand master of the order of Avis, one of Pedro's illegitimate sons, contrived to have himself proclaimed king (1383). The victory of Aljubarrota in the following year secured the crown to him against the claims of Castile. He arranged a determination of the boundaries of the two kingdoms. Foreseeing Portugal's destiny as a maritime power, he embarked for Ceuta, a strong post and refuge for Musulman corsairs on the African coast, took it, and converted it into a Portuguese station (1415).

9. How came Ferdinand to the throne of Castile? What was his domain? What conquest did Alfonso V. make? What came of the marriage of Ferdinand and Isabella? 10. Describe events in Portugal and the exploits of John.

11. Portuguese Discoveries and Conquests.—His son, Henry the Navigator, ably seconded John's designs. From Algarve Henry fitted out expeditions of discovery and exploration along the unknown coasts. At this time Jean de Béthencourt, a Norman noble, had discovered the Canaries (1402) and been appointed viceroy over them by Henry III. of Castile. The Portuguese navigators discovered the Madeira Islands (1418), the Azores (1432), and all the African coast as far as Sierra Leone.

12. King John lived to see the triumphs of his son and enjoy their reward. He died in 1433. Henry survived him thirty years, pursuing his enterprises under his brother Edward and his nephew, Affonso V. The latter passed over to Africa to found permanent settlements, achieve new conquests, and perpetuate his uncle's work. Hence he acquired the name of Africanus. His reign (1438-1481) laid the foundation of prosperity for the three following reigns (John II., Emmanuel, and John III.), and Portugal during this period was one of the richest, happiest, and most enterprising of European states.

CHAPTER V.

SCANDINAVIA AND THE SLAVIC COUNTRIES.

NORTHWARD three Scandinavian nations attempted union. Eastward, while Russia remained under the sway of the Mongols, the Poles and Lithuanians together grew into power, and the Hungarians beat off the Turks, who subdued the other Slavs of the Danube.

SECTION I. The Three Scandinavian Kingdoms.

1. Union of Sweden and Norway.—By a law common to the Scandinavians women could not inherit the crown.

11. Tell of Henry the Navigator and his work. Name important discoveries made about this time. 12. Why was Affonso V. called Africanus? How stood Portugal at this time? What was happening in the north?

Under this law the Norwegian dynasty became extinct after the death (1319) of the youngest son of Magnus the Lawgiver. Princesses, however, could transmit the crown to a son. By this means the vacant crown of Norway fell to Magnus VIII., a child of three, to whom the crown of Sweden had also fallen just at this time. On attaining his majority his rule was so stern that his discontented subjects compelled him to share the power with his sons, Haco VII. in Norway, and Eric XII. in Sweden. The death of Eric transferred Sweden back to Magnus, whose cruelty again drove his subjects to offer the crown first to Haco and then to his nephew, Albert of Mecklenburg. Haco let the fickle Swedes go, and married (1363) Margaret, daughter of Waldemar III. of Denmark.

2. Denmark.—For a century and a half Denmark had been in a state of constant revolution and disturbance from outside, until finally royalty died out in an interregnum of fourteen years (1326-1340). Waldemar III. (1340-1375), notwithstanding his many great qualities, had not the persistency needed to restore order in his distracted kingdom, and at his death it was little better off than at his accession. He was the last descendant of Estrita, sister of Canute the Great.

3. Margaret (1363-1412).—The Danes offered the crown to Olaf, son of Margaret and Haco (1375). Haco died five years after and left the crown of Norway and his claims to the crown of Sweden to Olaf, then only ten years old. Margaret proved fully capable of maintaining her boy's rights and of governing the kingdoms with wisdom and firmness. But Olaf died at the age of seventeen, and with him expired the last royal family of Scandinavia.

4. The benefits of Margaret's rule had been felt by the

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1. What was the law of succession in Scandinavia? What of Magnus VIII.? What of Haco? 2. What was the condition of Denmark? Tell of Waldemar III. 3. What followed on the death of Haco? Who maintained order?

people, and both Denmark and Norway entreated her to remain in power and bring up the new king. This was her sister's grandson, Eric of Pomerania, then only five years old. Margaret continued to govern, and Sweden, restive under Albert of Mecklenburg, saw with envy the peace and prosperity of its neighbors. Albert invaded Margaret's kingdom, but was defeated and taken prisoner at Falkjoping. Sweden willingly passed under the sway of the queen (1389).

5. Union of Calmar (1397).—Margaret now ruled the three kingdoms, and after a few years she resolved on bringing to a head a project she had long entertained. Assembling the deputies of the three kingdoms at Calmar, in Sweden, she had Eric solemnly crowned and laid before the assembly the benefits to be derived from a union of the three kingdoms. It was thereupon agreed to unite the three kingdoms, in perpetuity, under one monarch, who should visit each kingdom in turn, hear his subjects' complaints, and appoint the higher magistrates. Each country was to retain its laws and liberties, and all were to defend each other in case of attack on any one. Such a measure alone more than merits for its author the title of the "Semiramis of the North."

6. Margaret's Successors.—Margaret continued to rule and reign over the Union for fifteen years. Eric, however, had neither the virtues nor the capacity of his aunt, and disaffection, in Sweden particularly, broke out soon after his accession to the throne. The old troubles began again. Eric's nephew, Christopher the Bavarian, restored order, but at his death Canutson, an ambitious Swedish noble, seized the thrones of Sweden and Norway. His tyranny wrought its own cure. Christian I. of Oldenburg (1448–

4. What mission was entrusted to Margaret? What of Albert of Mecklenburg?
5. What is meant by the Union of Calmar? What title was bestowed on Margaret?
6. Did the Union remain after her death? How was the Union broken?

1481), being elected by the Danes, acknowledged by the Norwegians and by the majority of the Swedes, soon re-established the Scandinavian monarchy and the Union of Calmar (1458).

SECTION II. The Enslaved Slavs.

7. The Russians; Ivan III.—The Russians, after their separation from Catholic unity, remained under the sway of the Mongols, and it was only under Ivan III. (1462-1505) that they obtained relief. He changed the Mongol tyranny for his own, and founded the Muscovite autocracy at the sacrifice of every vestige of popular and religious liberty.

8. The Bulgarians; Stephen.—On both banks of the Danube arose the kingdom of Bulgaria in the thirteenth century. In the fourteenth Serbia, under Stephen Dushan (1333-1356), conquered Bulgaria, Macedon, and Albania, Stephen taking the title of Emperor of the Servians, Albanians, and Greeks. These countries had repulsed the Mongols and freed themselves from the Hungarians and Byzantine emperors. They were sharers in the Greek schism.

9. The Poles; Casimir the Great.—Hungary and Poland had been devastated by the Mongol invasions, which when they passed left a succession of internal and dynastic troubles. The accession of Casimir III. (1333-1370) put an end to anarchy in Poland after a lapse of nearly a century. He was an able prince, who made his power respected at home and abroad. Though he lost Silesia, he gained Red Russia, or Galicia. He drew up a code of laws, the "Universal Statute," for his people, which, with the wisdom of his administration, gained for him the title of

What did Christian I. accomplish? 7. Who freed Russia from the Mongols? What dynasty did Ivan found? 8. When was Bulgaria made a kingdom? What of Stephen Dushan? 9. How stood Poland and Hungary? Tell of Casimir III.

Great. By these laws the nobles alone shared with the king political power, but the peasants enjoyed civil liberty. Hence Casimir is also known as King of the Peasants. Louis the Great of Hungary succeeded him. Louis' daughter, Hedwig, was crowned *king* by the Poles (1384), and by marrying Jagellon, Grand Duke of Lithuania (1386), brought power and happiness to herself and her people.

10. The Lithuanians; Ladislaus V.—The Lithuanians clung stubbornly to paganism down to the end of the fourteenth century. When Jagellon, their prince, solicited the hand of Hedwig he promised to become a Christian. He was ugly and ill-favored in appearance. Nevertheless Hedwig married him; Lithuania, joined to Poland, immediately lifted it into one of the great powers of Europe; and Jagellon, who was baptized Ladislaus, showed once again what great and noble qualities of mind and heart can be combined in a misshapen body. Ladislaus V. converted his own Lithuanians and refused the kingdom of Bohemia, offered him by the heretical Hussites. He dealt a great blow at the Teutonic Knights at Tannenberg (1410), who were trespassing on his rights. His dynasty reigned in Poland for two centuries (1386-1573).

11. Hungary; Louis the Great (1342-1382).—In the thirteenth century the Arpad line became extinct in Hungary, and dissension reigned till the crowning of Charobert (1310). He was a great-grandson of Charles of Anjou, brother of St. Louis, and was descended from a Hungarian princess. He strengthened his rule for the benefit of his successor, Louis, who also inherited Poland. Louis' long reign was devoted to wars in all directions. In his wars, however, he did not neglect the arts of peace, and industry and commerce flourished in his domains, while

9. By what title is Casimir known? Whom did his daughter marry? 10. What resulted from the marriage? Describe the reign of Ladislaus V. 11. Who was Charobert? How did Louis reign?

the peasantry were protected against the exactions of the nobles. He was more popular with the Hungarians than with the Poles. His daughter Hedwig succeeded him in Poland, while his daughter Mary was crowned *King* of Hungary.

12. Sigismund (1387-1437).—Troubles arose. Sigismund of Luxembourg married Mary. He was son of the Emperor Charles IV., brother of the Emperor Wenceslaus, and himself an aspirant to the empire. After a severe struggle he succeeded in establishing his power in Hungary, and gave his efforts to restoring peace in Bohemia, the empire, and the Church. His daughter Elizabeth married Albert of Austria, but Albert died the second year of his reign (1439). Elizabeth sought the assistance of Ladislaus of Poland, son of Jagellon, for her infant son and his kingdom of Hungary, but Ladislaus was crushed at Varna (1444).

CHAPTER VI.

THE GREEK EMPIRE AND THE OTTOMAN TURKS.

THE Greek Empire is successively ruled by seven princes of the Palæologi. After losing most of its possessions it is delivered by Tamerlane's victory over the Turks, only to fall with Constantinople.

SECTION I. Turkish Conquests to the Battle of Angora (1299-1402).

1. The Palæologi.—Michael Palæologus, Greek Emperor of Nicæa, entered Constantinople a conqueror after its capture from Baldwin II., the last of the Latin emperors (1261). Michael revived the Eastern Empire. He was threatened by the Turks in Asia Minor, in Europe by

Who succeeded Louis? 12. What happened in Hungary? How did Sigismund act? What happened at Varna? 1. Who was Michael Palæologus? To what did he succeed? 1. What of the Eastern and Western churches?

the Latins—the one hating the Greeks because they were Christians, the other because they were schismatics. Michael strove to reconcile the Eastern and Western churches, whose union was finally proclaimed at Lyons (1274). The Greeks, however, obstinately rejected the union.

2. Andronicus the Elder, Michael's son and successor, began his reign by an open rupture with the Latin Church (1283). He taxed his subjects to buy off the enemies of the empire, and thus created general discontent. Constantinople was at the mercy of the mercenaries whom he hired to fight his battles. Finally he sought help from the Turks, but was dethroned by his grandson, Andronicus the Younger (1328). The new emperor lost Asia Minor and died, leaving the crown to John Palæologus I., a boy nine years old, who reigned through half a century of disaster (1341-1391).

3. **Rival Emperors.**—His grandson was John Cantacuzenus, who soon assumed the imperial dignity and invested his son with it, so that the empire rejoiced in three rival emperors at once. Things came to such a woful pass that Cantacuzenus, hoping to better matters, abdicated; but his encouragement of the Turks proved fatal to the tottering empire.

4. **Foundation of the Ottoman Empire (1299); taking of Gallipoli (1356).**—A band of Turks was driven by the Mongol invasion from the borders of the Caspian Sea into Asia Minor. They were warlike and enterprising. The dismemberment of the sultanate of Iconium furnished their chief, Osman, or Ottoman, an opportunity of founding an independent state out of territory belonging to the Greeks (1299). Hence the name Osmanlis, or Ottomans. Orkhan (1326-1360), Osman's son and successor, took

2. How did Andronicus the Elder act? What befell him? Tell of Andronicus the Younger and his successor. 3. What followed on the death of John Palæologus? 4. How was the Ottoman Empire founded?

Brusa, in Bithynia, and made it his capital. Four years later (1330) he won Nicæa, and Asia Minor was lost to the Greeks. The Turkish sultan played with the Greeks, now as their ally, now as their enemy. One of his sons, sent to help John Cantacuzenus, treacherously seized the fortress of Gallipoli from the Greeks (1356), thus gaining for his countrymen a foothold in Europe. Orkhan had organized his followers for conquest, and one of his chief instruments was a body of infantry called *Yeni Cheri* (Janizaries), or New Troop. These were recruited from the robust Christian children taken captive or stolen. They were brought up as fanatical Turks and were taught the blindest obedience. They became the most formidable force in the Turkish ranks and were the bitterest foes of Christianity.

5. Amurat I.; taking of Adrianople (1361).—Amurat, or Murad, I. (1360-1389), succeeded Orkhan, and, taking Adrianople, made it his capital. The emperor, John Palæologus, was confined within the suburbs of Constantinople. He went to Italy to seek aid by reconciling the Greek with the Latin church, but was arrested for debt at Venice, and was only rescued by the filial devotion of his son. He next paid tribute to the sultan and accompanied him in all his expeditions (1370). Christendom found defenders among the races dwelling along the banks of the Danube. The princes of Servia, Bosnia, and Bulgaria united against Amurat, but were finally crushed on the plains of Kossovo (1389). There Amurat himself fell, stabbed by a dying Servian.

6. Bajazet I. (1389-1402).—Bajazet, or Bayazid, began his reign by stabbing his only brother, whose ambitious designs he dreaded. He became a great conqueror, both

Describe the reign and conquests of Orkhan. Who were the Janizaries? 5. Tell of Amurat I. What became of the Greek Empire? What happened at Kossovo? 6. What of Bajazet?

on the Danube and in Asia Minor, where he reduced the Seljukian emirs, hitherto independent. On the death of John Palæologus, his son Manuel (1391-1425), who was held as hostage in the Turkish camp, escaped. Bajazet in revenge blockaded Constantinople, making the insolent boast that his steed would soon eat oats off the high altar of St. Peter's at Rome. Christendom was at last aroused, and more than one hundred thousand Crusaders poured down the valley of the Danube under the lead of Sigismund of Hungary and John of Nevers. Rashness and lack of discipline invited a fearful defeat at Nicopolis (1396), where Bajazet took a terrible revenge for the slaughter of his troops. He made good his conquests along the Danube, and was preparing to take Constantinople when a new invasion stayed his hand.

SECTION II. The Mongol Empire.

7. Timur.—Timur was born at Kesh, near Samarcand, in Independent Tartary (1336). He early aspired to reviving the empire of Jenghis Khan, from whom he claimed descent. He began by conquering Jagatai, making Samarcand his capital. Calling the Mongol chiefs together, he mounted the throne of Jenghis Khan, proclaimed himself lord of the East and of the West, and swore to bring the rulers of the world to his sway (1370).

8. Timur's Conquests.—His career thenceforward was one series of bloody triumphs marked by the most cruel atrocities on the vanquished. He crossed the Caucasus, beat the khan of the Golden Horde, destroyed Azof, and sent one of his generals to ravage Poland. Turning back into Asia, he devastated India and strewed the banks of

What was Bajazet's boast? What happened at Nicopolis? 7. Who was Timur and what was his ambition? 8. Of what kind were Timur's conquests? Describe his march.

the Ganges with ruins (1399). He invaded Syria and destroyed Damascus (1401) and Bagdad.

9. Defeat of Bajazet.—Challenged by the proud Bajazet, he poured down on Asia Minor. The rivals met near Angora, or Ancyra. Bajazet, to his cost, underrated his enemy, and after a long day's battle Timur gained a complete victory. Bajazet was captured and all Asia Minor fell into the hands of the conqueror, the emperor of Constantinople also paying him tribute. Bajazet died in captivity. Timur returned to Samarcand and was preparing to conquer China when he died. His empire soon dissolved, but one of his great-grandsons founded the empire of the Great Mogul in India.

SECTION III. The Ottoman Turks to the taking of Constantinople.

10. Amurat II. (1421-1451); Hunyades.—Bajazet's captivity was followed by a long civil war among his five sons. Manuel Palæologus, instead of taking advantage of the dissension, sought alliance with Mohammed I., who triumphed over his brothers and left the throne to his son, Amurat II. Amurat laid siege to Constantinople (1422) because Manuel had set up a rival to him. He was compelled to withdraw, but only for a time. John Palæologus II., son and successor of Manuel, paid tribute to the sultan by way of buying him off. Seeing this to be useless, he appealed to the West for aid, and was reconciled with the Latin Church at the Council of Florence (1439). The Crusaders came again to the rescue under the lead of John Hunyades, prince of Transylvania. He cleared the Danube of the Turks and pursued them to Adrianople (1443).

11. Scanderbeg.—And now the sultan lost one of the

9. By whom was Timur opposed? What of Angora? What of Timur and his empire? 10. What followed Bajazet's captivity? How did Manuel Palæologus act? What happened at the Council of Florence? What of John Hunyades?

ablest of his generals—George Castriota, an Albanian noble, who had been captured by the Turks in childhood, and whose valor in the service gained him the title of Scanderbeg, or Chief Alexander. He never lost his Christian sense or hope of recovering his patrimony and independence. His defection was a great blow to Amurat. With a handful of followers he entered Croya, capital of Albania, and assumed the government. He soon occupied the whole country and waged an unceasing and desperate battle with the Turks. His successes, added to those of Hunyades, induced Amurat to sue for peace. It was granted and then violated by the Crusaders. Amurat marched against them and met them at Varna (1444). The valor of Hunyades first promised victory to the Christians, but the rashness of Ladislaus of Poland lost them the day and himself his life.

12. Hunyades, named regent of Hungary, without waiting for Scanderbeg, again attacked the Turks at Kossovo and slew great numbers, but could not conquer (1448). John Palæologus survived this defeat only a few days. Scanderbeg twice repulsed Amurat from the walls of Croya, and the sultan died charging his son to turn all his forces against Constantinople.

13. Constantine XII. (1448-1453) and Mohammed II. (1451-1481).—Constantine XII. succeeded his brother, John Palæologus, and, like him, paid tribute to the Turks. Mohammed II. in return had solemnly guaranteed the freedom of the empire. But he only dreamed of conquest, and after maturing his plans laid siege to Constantinople with an army of two hundred and fifty thousand men and a fleet of four hundred sail (April 6, 1453).

14. Fall of Constantinople.—Europe was deaf to the

11. Who was Scanderbeg? Tell of his exploits. What occurred at Varna?
12. Describe the course of the struggle with the Turks. 13. What of Mohammed II. and Constantine XII.?

voice of the Sovereign Pontiff, and Constantinople could only muster about ten thousand defenders. The Greeks objected to even the few Latin allies who had obeyed the pontiff's call. The unwearied valor of Constantine alone upheld the courage of his people. The water defence of the city being at length overcome, Constantine prepared for the final assault in a manner worthy of a Christian hero. Overwhelming numbers prevailed over valor. The Ottomans poured into the city (May 29, 1453). They wreaked a characteristic vengeance. The inhabitants were either sold in slavery, massacred, or tortured. Constantine fell in the breach, and his head was cut off and sent among the people of Asia as a trophy. The basilica of St. Sophia was turned into a mosque, and the Eastern Empire fell a prey to its dissensions, corruption, and schism, eleven hundred and twenty-three years after the foundation of Constantinople and nine hundred and seventy-seven years after the fall of the Western Empire.

14. What were the opposing forces at the siege of Constantinople? Describe the siege and fall of the city. How did the Turks act? What befell Constantine? How long had the Eastern Empire lasted?

MODERN HISTORY.

FIRST EPOCH.

FROM THE FALL OF CONSTANTINOPLE TO THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION.

THIS epoch, known as the *Renaissance*, comprises the struggle between Christendom and the sultans of Constantinople, the increase of the royal authority in some of the western states, and the great maritime discoveries of the Spaniards and Portuguese.

CHAPTER I.

STRUGGLE WITH THE TURKS.

SECTION I. Mohammed II. (1451-1481).

1. Defence of Belgrade.—The fall of Constantinople was a shock to all Europe; but the Christian princes were too divided to unite against the common foe. Mohammed II. next marched on Belgrade with an army of one hundred and fifty thousand men. Belgrade was the bulwark of Hungary, and at the warning voice of the pope forty thousand Crusaders flew to its defence under the lead of Hunyades. They cut their way into the city, and, notwithstanding the most desperate efforts on the part of the Turks, Mohammed was beaten off with great loss. Hunyades and St. John Capistran, whose zeal had inspired the defence, died soon after.

What is comprised in the Renaissance epoch? 1. What followed the fall of Constantinople? By whom was Belgrade defended? How did the Turks fare? What of Hunyades and St. John Capistran?

2. Scanderbeg.—Mohammed pursued his conquests in Greece, taking Thebes, Athens, Sparta, and other principalities. Albania, under the leadership of Scanderbeg, opposed an invincible resistance. Scanderbeg made an alliance with Matthias Corvinus, son and successor of Hunyades, with the republic of Venice, and the pope, Pius II., but had chiefly to rely on his own energy and resources. Twice he beat back the Turks from Croya, his capital, and defeated them in numerous engagements. He held Albania till his death, and died with the sound of another victory ringing in his ears (January 17, 1467). With him perished the hopes of Albania.

3. Death of Mohammed II.—Mohammed took Negropont from the Venetians, and then besieged Rhodes, held by the Knights Hospitalers. The siege became one of the events of European history. The Knights, under their grand master, D'Aubusson, for three months withstood the assault of overwhelming forces, and the Turks were at last compelled to retire. While Mohammed was contemplating new schemes of vengeance he died (1481). With his death came dissensions among the Turks, and his successor, Bayazid II., was deposed by the janizaries and poisoned by his son Selim, who, to secure the throne, massacred all his brothers and their children.

SECTION II. The Renaissance in Italy.

4. Revival of Learning.—The capture of Constantinople by the Turks was a death-blow to the learning and civilization of that city. Many learned Greeks emigrated to Italy, where they were welcomed by Pope Nicholas V. They took with them precious monuments of learning, which, spreading abroad, caused a revival of literary and

2. Trace the course of Mohammed's conquests. What of Scanderbeg? What followed his death? 3. Describe the siege of Rhodes. What followed on the death of Mohammed? 4. Mention one result of the fall of Constantinople.

artistic tastes. From this sprang the *Renaissance*, or renewal of letters and arts, by the study of the Greek and Latin models.

5. The Age of Leo X.—The fourteenth century was immortalized by the great Italian poets, Dante and Petrarch. By the close of the fifteenth century the study of the ancient classics had become general in the great cities, especially in Italy. The celebrated family of the Medici, in Florence, gave a strong impulse to it. Pope Leo X. (1513-1521) has given his name to this golden age, whose splendor illumined the wane of the fifteenth century and the dawn of the sixteenth. It was the age of Ariosto and Tasso, of Guicciardini and Machiavelli, of Bramante and Michael Angelo, of Da Vinci and Perugino, Titian and Correggio, Paul Veronese, and many another master in literature and art. Spain, France, and the other countries of Europe caught the fever, which, high and inspiring as it was in its zenith, in its decline developed into extravagance and engendered vicious tastes. Still, it aided materially to advance literature and art, and helped to promote the development of modern languages, literary tastes, and a love of study where there had formerly been merely a love of arms.

6. Great Inventions.—The art of printing was discovered at this time by Gutenberg (1436). In 1442 the printing of the first Catholic Bible was begun. This art spread rapidly, multiplying, cheapening, and making accessible to the masses works that hitherto were of necessity the property of the few. The mariner's compass was perfected at the end of the fifteenth century, about which time also the use of fire-arms in battle was adopted. The discovering of the compass was preparatory to the maritime dis-

What is meant by the Renaissance? 5. What is meant by the age of Leo X.? Mention some illustrious names of that age. How did the Renaissance spread? What of its decline? 6. Mention some of the inventions of the period.

coveries that soon followed, while the use of fire-arms completely changed the science of war.

CHAPTER II.

THE DECLINE OF FEUDALISM.

IN the latter half of the fifteenth century royal authority began to rise over feudalism.

SECTION I. France: Louis XI. (1461-1483); Charles VIII. (1483-1498).

1. Louis XI.—In France the two great fiefs of Brittany and Burgundy were almost independent of the crown. Charles the Bold, Duke of Burgundy, was one of the richest and most powerful princes of the time. Louis XI., while still dauphin, had headed the revolt of the nobles against his father, Charles VII. On ascending the throne he resolved to crush his old allies.

2. The League of the Public Weal.—The nobles, seeing his design, rushed to arms, Charles, Louis' former friend, at their head. They formed the "League of the Public Weal" (1465), and fought a drawn battle with the king at Montlhéry. Louis, finding them too strong, made peace at the price of various concessions. These he recovered in the following year. In 1467 Charles, who on the death of his father (June 15) had become Duke of Burgundy, formed a new league against Louis, gained possession of the king's person, and only released him after extorting humiliating terms. In the following year he married Margaret, sister of Edward IV. of England, and reduced his rebellious subjects of Liége. He was now at the height of his power.

1. How was power divided in France during the fifteenth century? What monarch aimed at royal supremacy? 2. What was the League of the Public Weal? Who was Louis' chief opponent? Describe the progress of the struggle.

3. Conflict between Louis and Charles the Bold.—There were further troubles in France between Louis and his brother. In 1470 an Assembly of Notables at Tours declared the concessions made to Charles the Bold and the conditions of the treaty (Péronne) null and void. Charles invaded France (February, 1471), and wrought great devastation, but failed to shake the authority of the king. A year's truce followed, and the acquisition of Guelderland in 1472 added the fifth duchy to Burgundy.

4. The Swiss and Charles the Bold.—Louis in turn formed a league against Charles which comprised France, Austria, the Swiss cantons, and some of the Alsatian free towns. In 1475 a French army invaded Burgundy and Charles was surrounded by a network of foes. An English diversion into France by his ally, Edward IV., was disposed of by a hastily concluded peace. Charles, by the capture of Nancy (1475), completed the conquest of Lorraine, and, marching against the Swiss, thought to deal a death-blow to his enemies. Instead he received his own. His splendid army was wholly defeated by the Swiss, his camp taken and plundered. Organizing another force, he was again beaten at Morat (June 22), thereby losing Lorraine. Gathering a last army, he was defeated and slain near Nancy (January 5, 1477). Thus perished the last Duke of Burgundy.

5. Triumph of Louis XI.—On the death of Charles, Louis, as his suzerain, seized his possessions, including the duchy of Burgundy, Franche-Comté, and the cities along the Somme. Charles in 1476 had betrothed his only child, Mary, to Maximilian, son of the Emperor Frederick, thus uniting the houses of Burgundy and Hapsburg. Maximilian declared war against Louis for the re-

3. What did the Notables declare at Tours? What resulted? 4. How did Louis retaliate? What expedition did Charles undertake and with what result? 5. How did Louis become possessed of Burgundy? What rival claimant arose?

covery of his wife's possessions. After an indecisive campaign Louis, by the treaty of Arras (1482), retained his acquisitions, pledging them as the dower of Margaret of Austria, daughter of Maximilian and Mary, to whom he had betrothed his son. His arms were now victorious everywhere. He retook Perpignan from John II. of Aragon. The great feudal houses fell before him. The Count of Armagnac was treacherously slain in 1473. The Duke of Alençon was thrown into prison in 1474 and died there. Other great nobles who had revolted met like fates. By treaty and inheritance Anjou, Maine, and Provence, with the claims to the kingdom of the Two Sicilies fell to the French king.

6. Reforms of Louis XI.—Louis had crushed the great nobles, strengthened royal authority, enlarged the frontiers of the kingdom, and more than paved the way for the territorial unity of France. He increased the standing army and added to the defences of the fortified towns. He helped to raise up the people at the expense of the nobles. He improved the administration of justice and established local parliaments. He cared for the public roads and canals, aided commercial enterprise both by sea and land, and favored manufactures and mining. He set up printing-offices in the chief cities and established four new universities. He also established a system of couriers throughout the kingdom for the safe and speedy despatch of orders, which was the origin of the French postal system.

7. Charles VIII. (1483-1498).—Louis was succeeded by his son Charles, who was only thirteen at his father's death. During his minority his eldest sister, Anne de Beaujeu, ruled with wisdom and power, overcoming the revolting

What was arranged at Arras? Tell of Louis' conquests. 6. What reforms did Louis accomplish? What industries did he favor? What important system did he establish? 7. Who acted as regent during the minority of Charles VIII.?

nobles. Charles' exploits in search of the crown of the Two Sicilies belong to another chapter.

SECTION II. England: Wars of the Roses (1455-1485).

8. The House of York.—Henry VI., a weak-minded and feeble man, having lost all the English possessions in France except Calais, became greatly unpopular in England. Richard, Duke of York, a descendant of Edward III., tried to seize the throne by fanning the popular discontent. The king being subject to temporary fits of insanity, Richard had himself made protector of the kingdom. This gave great umbrage to the party of the house of Lancaster, who suddenly saw themselves ousted from power.

9. Margaret of Anjou.—The queen, Margaret of Anjou, a woman of extraordinary energy, came to their rescue and that of her husband. Under her influence the king threw off the yoke of York. The latter summoned his partisans, and Henry was defeated and taken prisoner at St. Alban's (1455). He was led captive to London, and York reigned in his name.

10. Guy of Warwick.—Margaret rallied the broken party and compelled York to fly. He left his cause in the hands of Guy, Earl of Warwick, who defeated Margaret at Northampton (1460). The king was again made prisoner and taken to London. York returned, Parliament was summoned, and the duke, declaring Henry a usurper, claimed the crown as the representative of Edward III. The case of the claimant was brought before the House of Lords, who decided that Henry should reign for life and York succeed him, to the exclusion of the Prince of Wales.

11. Defeat of the Lancastrians.—The queen had raised an army of twenty thousand men and gave battle to the

8. Why was Henry VI. unpopular? What was the ambition of the Duke of York? 9. Who upheld the Lancastrian cause? What happened at St. Alban's? 10. Describe what followed. Who decided on the Duke of York's claim?

Yorkists at Wakefield. York was defeated and slain ; but Warwick remained and held the king a close prisoner. He was defeated by Margaret at St. Alban's and the king again released. But London shut its gates against the queen and declared in favor of Edward, eldest son of the Duke of York. Margaret was compelled to retire northwards. Warwick completely defeated her army at the bloody battle of Towton, and Margaret, with her husband and infant son, fled to Flanders.

12. Edward IV.—Edward now reigned. He soon quarrelled with Warwick, whom he disgraced and dismissed. Warwick went over to the other side. Edward's troops deserted him, he fled, and Henry VI. was again restored. London, however, as well as other strong centres, secretly adhered to Edward. Assisted by the Duke of Burgundy, he returned to England. Clarence, his brother, husband of Warwick's daughter, deserted the earl and went over to the Yorkists. This resulted in the defeat of the Lancastrians at Barnet, where Warwick lost his life and the cause of the king.

13. Battle of Tewkesbury (1471).—Margaret landed in England on the same day, only to strike a last stroke at Tewkesbury, which was the death-blow to the royal cause. She was taken prisoner and sent to the Tower. Her gallant son was brutally murdered in the presence of the conqueror. His father soon followed him to the grave, and Margaret, ransomed by the King of France, died within a few years. Edward's reign was short and given up to debauchery. One of the victims of his cruelty was his own brother, Clarence.

14. Richard III. (1483-1485).—Edward left two sons, the elder, Edward V., being only thirteen years old. Their

11. What happened at Wakefield ? At St. Alban's and at Towton ? 12. Who now reigned ? With whom did Edward quarrel ? Describe events up to the battle of Barnet. 13. Describe the battle of Tewkesbury and its results.

uncle, Richard, Duke of Gloucester, was named protector. He lodged the princes in the Tower of London and resolved on gaining the throne for himself. To do this he put the nobles whom he feared, such as Hastings and Rivers, to death. The princes fell next. Gloucester was declared king and his title confirmed by Parliament. The powerful Duke of Buckingham, who had entered into a conspiracy against him, was beheaded. Richard had not been an unpopular man. He was a soldier and statesman of proved ability. His cruelty, however, and especially the murder of the princes, turned the people against him.

15. Wars of the Roses ended.—A conspiracy had been planned to set Henry of Richmond, a descendant of John of Gaunt, on the throne. Invited over from Flanders, he landed in Wales at the head of a small force, which was rapidly increased. Richard hastened to meet him at Bosworth field (August 22), and would have defeated him had not Lord Stanley deserted at the crisis of the battle. Richard was slain fighting, and Henry was proclaimed king. This battle ended the Wars of the Roses, and the Plantagenets yielded to the Tudor dynasty.

16. Henry VII. (Tudor, 1485-1509).—With Henry VII. came the consolidation of the royal power in England. He married Elizabeth, eldest daughter of Edward IV., and thus reconciled the rival houses of York and Lancaster. The strength of the nobles had been broken and their fortunes wasted in the long Wars of the Roses. As a consequence Henry found it a comparatively easy task to tighten the reins of power in his own hands.

17. Pretenders to the Throne.—Two attempts were made to dispossess him. A pretender, Lambert Simnel, who claimed to be the Earl of Warwick, son of the Duke of Clarence,

14. Who became Protector and how did he use his office? 15. What conspiracy arose? What turned the day at Bosworth? 16. How did Henry VII. reconcile the factions? What effect on England had the Wars of the Roses?

drew many Yorkists to his standard, but after a brief success was defeated at Nottingham (1487) and sent to serve as a scullion in the king's kitchen. A second and more dangerous pretender appeared in the person of Perkin Warbeck, who claimed to be Richard, Duke of York, second son of Edward IV. Warbeck's cause was taken up by Burgundy, France, Scotland, and Ireland, while a conspiracy in his favor was set on foot among the English nobility, which, being discovered, cost Lord Stanley his life—the Stanley whose timely defection at Bosworth turned the day in Henry's favor. Warbeck maintained the struggle for five years, but, being finally abandoned, threw himself into the king's hands and was imprisoned in the Tower. Trying to escape thence, he was taken and hanged (1499). The young Earl of Warwick, also a prisoner, who was implicated in the attempt and in a projected insurrection, was tried by his peers and condemned to be beheaded.

18. Effects of Henry VII.'s Reign.—Henry was of an avaricious spirit and devised pretences for extorting money from his subjects. Nevertheless he lived within his means and left a full treasury behind him. He kept England at peace, reformed the laws, and greatly encouraged commerce and national industry. During his reign Sebastian Cabot, the Venetian, sailed from Bristol, under Henry's patronage, and discovered Newfoundland (1497).

SECTION III. Spain: Ferdinand the Catholic (1479-1516) and Isabella (1474-1504).

19. Henry of Castile.—John II. was succeeded on the throne of Castile by Henry, his son by his first marriage with Maria of Aragon. John's second wife was Isabella of Portugal, by whom he had a daughter, Isabella, who

17. What pretender now appeared? What of Perkin Warbeck? What befell Warbeck and his supporters? 18. Describe the character of Henry VII. How did England fare under him? What expedition did he encourage?

was only three years old at the time of her father's death. Henry resolved on securing the succession to his daughter, Juana, and tried various schemes to dispose of his sister's hand and of her possible claims to the crown. The Castilian nobles revolted against him and offered the crown to his brother Alfonso (1466). On the death of Alfonso (1468) they transferred their allegiance to Isabella. A compromise was effected with Henry, by which it was agreed that Isabella should succeed him on the throne of Castile and Leon. The Cortes ratified the agreement. Henry broke his word and again tried to dispose of his sister's hand. She had many suitors, but favored Ferdinand, prince of Aragon, the son of John II. Despite Henry's resistance they were married at Valladolid (October 19, 1469), Ferdinand having previously guaranteed to Isabella all essential rights of sovereignty in Castile and Leon.

20. Accession of Isabella.—Henry declared Isabella to have now forfeited all claims to the crown, and set up his daughter Juana as his lawful successor. The result was a civil war, in which the party of Isabella triumphed. Henry died on December 11, 1474, and Isabella was proclaimed queen at Segovia. Juana's partisans still held out, aided by Alfonso of Portugal, to whom she had been affianced. Finding herself at last deserted and the party of Isabella triumphant, Juana took the veil (1479), and thenceforth Isabella reigned without a rival.

21. Union of the Crowns of Castile and Aragon.—Meanwhile John II. of Aragon had died and Ferdinand succeeded him. Thus the royal pair reigned conjointly over all Spain, with the exception of Granada, still held by the Moors, and Navarre, which had been bestowed on Ferdinand's sister Eleanor.

19. Why did the nobles revolt against Henry of Castile? Why was Isabella chosen to succeed? Whom did Isabella marry? 20. Describe the struggle that ensued. 21. To what possessions did Ferdinand and Isabella succeed?

22. Siege of Granada.—Ferdinand and Isabella resolved on driving the Moors from Spain. Thus occurred the famous expedition (1481-1492) against Granada, the stronghold of the Moors. Ferdinand and Isabella themselves conducted the siege, aided by the great captain, Gonsalvo de Cordova. The Moors, under their king, Boabdil, made a heroic defence, but were finally compelled to surrender their beautiful city (January 2, 1492). Boabdil retired to Africa and the Moorish power in Spain was destroyed for ever. The Moors who chose to follow their king were allowed to do so. Those who remained were compelled to swear fealty. Multitudes chose to remain; but a revolt having broken out among them in 1501, which was quelled by Gonsalvo, Ferdinand ordered them either to quit Spain or become Christians. After this the majority of them gradually retired to Africa. For this great exploit Ferdinand and Isabella received from the Holy See the joint title of “the Catholic.”

23. Policy of Ferdinand.—The sovereigns also set themselves to consolidate the kingdom and render it a unit by putting an end to its petty divisions. Ferdinand struck at the power of the nobles by obtaining in his own person the grand-mastership of the several orders of knighthood and strengthening the *hermandad*, or joint league of cities for the suppression of brigandage and aggression on the part of the nobles. He also set the Inquisition in active operation, and used it as a terror not only against the converted Moors and Jews (whose conversion was for the most part only nominal), but also against the turbulent among his Christian subjects. As a matter of fact it was soon converted into a state terrorism. Queen Isabella approved of it with great reluctance. Two Dominicans were appointed

22. Who were engaged in the siege of Granada? What resulted from the fall of Granada? What became of the Moors? 23. How was union established in Spain? Why was the Inquisition established?

Grand Inquisitors by royal edict (1480), and a court was set up at Seville. The edict first came into operation January 2, 1481. In the following year Pope Sixtus IV. urged mildness and moderation on the part of the inquisitors. He soon after bestowed on the Archbishop of Seville power of appeal for all Spain, and reversal, where he saw fit, of the judgments of the Inquisition.

24. The Inquisition in Spain.—It is beyond question that the Inquisition was guilty of great cruelties, and what was in reality a purely political instrument has stained the name of religion with blood by using it as a cloak for its misdeeds. It must not be forgotten, however, on the purely political side, that it was a critical time in Spanish history; that the monarch had turbulent nobles and newly-attached principalities to contend against, as well as the conquered Moors, abetted by the secret enmity of the Jews to the Christian faith. The Jews were at this time a very numerous body and powerful by their wealth. Conspiracy and disorder were put down with a severe hand, and the Inquisition was found to be the readiest and most effective instrument to that end. An edict for the expulsion of the Jews had been published prior to that against the Moors (March 31, 1492), and large numbers of them left the kingdom.

25. Deaths of Ferdinand and Isabella.—Isabella died in 1504, honored to the last for her great gifts and virtues. She it was who was chiefly instrumental in aiding Columbus to discover the New World. Her daughter Catherine was married to Arthur, eldest son of Henry VII. of England, and, on that prince's death, within a year to his brother Henry. Isabella was married to Emanuel of Portugal, and Juana to the Archduke Philip, son of the Emperor Maximilian. On Isabella's death Philip, in right of his

What action did Sixtus IV. take regarding the Inquisition? 24. Against what was the Inquisition especially aimed? Why were the Jews severely treated? 25. What great event marks Isabella's reign? Whom did her daughter marry?

wife, claimed the regency of Castile (bequeathed to Juana), which Isabella had entrusted to Ferdinand. Ximenes, Archbishop of Toledo, and afterwards cardinal, as wise and energetic a statesman as he was a holy man, was made arbiter between the rival claimants. Philip died in 1506, and Juana lost her reason, leaving the claim to their young son Charles, in whose minority Ferdinand assumed the regency, which was vigorously carried on by Ximenes during the king's absence in Italy.

26. Cardinal Ximenes.—In 1509 Cardinal Ximenes organized an expedition against Oran, a nest of pirates on the African shore. He took the place with all its treasures, and thus added a new possession to Spain. On the death of Ferdinand (January 23, 1516) the regency of the kingdom was entrusted to the cardinal until the arrival of Prince Charles, Ferdinand's grandson. The cardinal organized a powerful militia by enrolling the citizens into corps, which were at once a protection to the kingdom and an offset to the power of the nobles. He ruled the kingdom well for Charles and held it against all opposition. He added to his conquests on the Barbary coasts, strove to protect the natives in the new American colonies, guarded well the finances, and instituted many reforms in the state, as well as among the clergy and religious orders. He received cool thanks from the young monarch on the latter's arrival (September 17, 1517), and died the following month (November 8). He was a munificent patron of letters, founded the great university of Alcalá de Henares, and defrayed the cost of preparing and having published the famous polyglot Bible, known as the Complutensian polyglot.

Who was Ximenes and what part did he play in affairs? How did Charles come to the throne? 26. Tell of the Oran expedition. How did Ximenes govern? How was he treated by Charles? With what is his name connected?

SECTION IV. Maritime Discoveries and Conquests of the Spaniards.

27. Christopher Columbus.—While Ferdinand and Isabella were still engaged in the conquest of Granada, Christopher Columbus, an experienced and enterprising Genoese mariner, had been troubling the various courts with a scheme of discovery from which they shrank. He maintained that by sailing over the ocean westward he would come to India, thus opening up a new route. After repeated failures and long disappointment his cause was at last taken up by Juan Perez, prior of the convent of La Rabida at Palos. Palos was famed for the enterprise of its mariners, and Perez had formerly been confessor to Queen Isabella. By his intercession and the representations of Columbus the queen was so wrought upon as to furnish two small vessels for the expedition, which was as much a religious as a maritime enterprise.

28. Discovery of America.—On August 3, 1492, Columbus, in command of three vessels containing one hundred and twenty men, set sail from Palos on his discovery of a new world. Overcoming all things—the elements, the dread of the unknown as the men advanced further and further into the mysterious deep, the murmurs and insubordination of his crew—the bold leader kept steadily on his course, until in the early morning of October 12, 1492, land was sighted. Disembarking at sunrise, Columbus took possession of the land, an island, in the name of the Spanish sovereigns, and, planting a cross, called the place San Salvador. The natives were friendly to the strangers, whom they looked upon as gods.

29. Other Voyages and Discoveries of Columbus.—Columbus, after making other discoveries, among them Hayti and Cuba, returned to Spain bearing some of the natives

27. Who was Columbus? What expedition did he propose? Who took up his cause? 28. What force had Columbus? Describe his voyage and discovery. 29. What other discoveries did Columbus make?

with him. He was received in great triumph by Ferdinand and Isabella in their court at Barcelona. He made three other voyages, each time with new discoveries. But envy of his fame raised up enemies against him. Isabella being dead, he was treated with gross insult and injury, and died in poverty, deserted by all. His children reaped the rewards which were most unjustly denied the man who, in the words of the inscription ordered by Ferdinand to be graven on his tomb, "had given a new world to Castile and Leon" (1506).

30. Hernando Cortez in Mexico.—The great discovery of Columbus gave a new bent and direction to maritime enterprise, and his example was soon followed by a multitude of others. In 1504 Hernando Cortez, a Spanish youth from Estremadura, sailed for Santo Domingo, where he received an appointment from the governor. He distinguished himself greatly and rose rapidly. Finally he was appointed to take charge of a new expedition of discovery, and set out at the head of a fleet of ten vessels containing five hundred and fifty Spaniards, two hundred or three hundred Indians, a few negroes, horses, and brass cannon (November 18, 1518). On March 4 he landed on the shores of a new country, portion of a vast empire which he found was ruled by a chief called Montezuma. The natives were brave and gave battle to the strangers, but were terrified at sight of the horses, hitherto unknown on their soil, and the flash and roar and destruction wrought by the cannon. They were defeated in every encounter, and Cortez resolved on conquering the land. He founded a fort called Vera Cruz, and burnt his ships to make retreat impossible.

31. Cortez and Montezuma.—On August 16, leaving a

How was Columbus rewarded for his discoveries? 30. How did Columbus' discoveries act on others? Tell of the expedition of Hernando Cortez. How was Cortez met by the natives? What action did Cortez take?

small garrison at Vera Cruz, he set out for the capital of Mexico, subduing or winning over the tribes on his march. He arrived before Mexico November 8, 1519, with six thousand native auxiliaries added to his original force. Montezuma received him with great pomp and awarded him and his followers quarters in the city, reported to contain a hundred thousand inhabitants. A pretext was found by the bold adventurer to pick a quarrel with Montezuma and imprison him in his own palace. He exacted the monarch's allegiance and that of his nobles and vassals to the King of Spain, with a tribute of one hundred thousand ducats.

32. Capture of the City of Mexico.—Cortez now learned that Narvaez had been sent to follow and supersede him. Leaving two hundred men as a garrison in Mexico, he hastened to meet Narvaez, took him prisoner, captured his forces, and reduced them to his own service. Returning to Mexico, he found that the natives had revolted. In the mêlée Montezuma received his death-wound. The Spaniards were driven out and pursued for six days. On July 7, 1520, a battle was fought on the plain of Otumba, which resulted in a great victory for Cortez. Gathering an auxiliary army, he marched against the capital and took it after a desperate defence (August 13, 1521). He was made governor and captain-general of the newly conquered country, with the enjoyment of an immense revenue. He completed his conquests, using such cruelty in the process that the natives revolted again and again, only to be put down each time with new cruelty.

33. Fall of Cortez.—Jealousy arose against Cortez, as against the greater and more magnanimous Columbus. His property was seized and his servants imprisoned. Re-

31. Describe Cortez' march to Mexico and his reception there. How did Cortez act? 32. Tell of Cortez and Narvaez. What happened in Mexico? How did the city fall? What followed its fall? 33. How was Cortez rewarded? . . .

turning to Spain, he was received with great distinction by Charles V. and sent back with new honors but more restricted powers. In 1536 he visited California and surveyed part of the Gulf of Mexico. Being under constant espionage, he again returned to Spain, where he was coldly received by the king and finally died in utter neglect and solitude (December 2, 1547).

34. Francisco Pizarro in Peru.—Another Estremaduran, named Francisco Pizarro, followed the stream of conquest to the New World. He joined various expeditions, in which he distinguished himself by his boldness and skill. Finally he united with Diego de Almagro, a soldier of fortune, in an exploring expedition southward from Panama (November, 1524). The expedition was unsuccessful, save for rumors of a rich land lying still further south. A second expedition could only muster one hundred and sixty followers. The acquisition of a little gold brought new followers, but too few to pursue conquest. Finally Pizarro went to Spain, where he was imprisoned for debt, but afterwards set free and favorably received by Charles V., and on July 26, 1529, was granted a royal commission as governor and captain-general of all the lands he might conquer in Peru. He set sail in 1530, and a year later sailed from Panama with three vessels, one hundred and eighty men, and twenty-seven horses.

35. Pizarro and the Incas.—Landing at St. Matthew's Bay, he found a vast empire governed by a family called the *incas*, two chiefs of whom at this time disputed the supremacy. Pizarro, joining his forces to those of Atahualpa, who had just gained a great victory over his brother, Huascar, was well received by the conqueror. The Spaniard secured the person of his new friend, whom he

Tell of Cortez' other discoveries and his end. 34. What led Pizarro to Peru? What obstacles did he encounter and how did he overcome them? 35. What discovery did Pizarro make? How did he act?

made prisoner, and the Peruvians fled. Atahualpa, as his ransom, offered to fill the room in which he was confined with gold. He filled it, and Pizarro, securing the booty, treacherously put his captive to death (August 29, 1533). Marching on Cuzco, the capital, he entered and proclaimed Manco Capac, a half-brother of Atahualpa, inca, Huascar having already been slain by his brother's order. Pizarro built Ciudad de los Reyes (City of the Kings) as a new capital on the coast (January 6, 1535), and resided there. Manco Capac escaped from Cuzco and raised a revolt. Cuzco was besieged and fired, and the Spaniards massacred in all directions. To add to their disasters a rupture between Almagro and Pizarro led to a war, in which Almagro was defeated and afterwards put to death (1538).

36. Death of Pizarro.—The country was now the prey of both Spaniards and natives. Reports of Pizarro's cruelty having reached Spain, Vaca de Castro was sent out (1540) to examine into the state of affairs. Before he reached the ground Pizarro fell the victim of an attack by Almagro's son, Diego (June 26, 1541), who proclaimed himself governor and hastened to meet Castro. In a battle near Jauja (September 16, 1542) Almagro was defeated, taken, and put to death. Castro applied himself vigorously to restore order, but had soon to yield to Blasco Nuñez Vela, who had been sent out as viceroy. His orders were to lighten the lot of the Indians and establish new laws in their favor. The reform brought on a civil war. Pizarro's brother, Gonzalo, raised a revolt and overcame Vela. Pedro de la Gasca was then sent to restore order. Gonzalo was taken and put to death (1548). Within two years the new viceroy had established order and

Describe Pizarro's conquest and methods. What capital did he found? Tell of Manco Capac. 36. What was the condition of Peru? How did Pizarro die? Describe the events that followed his death.

government, and made the Spanish authority paramount over all Peru.

SECTION V. Portugal: Maritime Discoveries and Conquests.

37. Voyages of Prince Henry.—The naval expeditions and voyages of discovery made by Prince Henry of Portugal, son of John the Great (1385-1433), extended over half a century. Prince Henry was led to believe that the African coast did not end, as was then supposed, at Cape Nun, and in attempting to explore beyond that point Madeira was discovered and occupied (1419). Subsequent expeditions only reached as far as Cape Bojador, three hundred miles further south of Cape Nun. Failing to double that point, it was considered to be the end of the habitable world.

38. Discovery of the Azores and Sierra Leone.—In 1433, however, Gil Eannez, who was sent out by the prince, succeeded in passing Cape Bojador. The Azores had been discovered and occupied a short time before. In 1441 Pope Eugenius IV., at Henry's request, granted to the crown of Portugal all the territory it could conquer from Cape Bojador to the Indies. This gave a new impetus to discovery. In 1445 the prince sent a vessel out under Diniz Dyaz, or Fernandez, which reached Cape Verd. The voyages brought gold and slaves into Portugal, and the spirit of the people was roused to their importance. A succession of larger expeditions was then sent out. One of these, just before Prince Henry's death (November 13, 1460), reached Sierra Leone.

39. Emanuel I. (1495-1521); Vasco da Gama.—The spirit of Portuguese enterprise initiated by John I. was kept up by his successor, John II. (1481-1495), but received an

37. Describe the expeditions of Prince Henry of Portugal and their result.
38. By whom was Cape Bojador passed? Tell of other discoveries. What effect had the discoveries on Portugal? 39. Did the kings encourage these expeditions?

altogether new impetus when Emanuel I., who married successively Isabella of Castile and her sister, Donna Maria, ascended the throne (1495-1521). His reign was the culminating point of Portugal's greatness and glory. He pursued the sea-path to India. In 1497 he fitted out a fleet under command of Vasco da Gama, a gentleman of his household and an experienced seaman. They succeeded in doubling the Cape of Storms, discovered by Diaz, which, with good omen, King Emanuel had named beforehand the Cape of Good Hope. Following the coast, they touched at various points, discovered Mozambique, and came upon some rich and civilized Mohammedan settlements. Going on from point to point, making new discoveries on their way and entering into relations with the inhabitants, they finally reached Calicut, in Hindostan (May 20, 1498). Thus a new route to the East was opened. Da Gama then sailed homewards, and arrived in the Tagus (August 29, 1499) after a voyage of twenty-six months. He was received with all honor, and the king gave him the title of "Lord of the Conquest of Ethiopia, Arabia, Persia, and India."

40. Discovery of Brazil.—Another expedition, under Cabral, was at once fitted out to establish trading-posts along the African coast. The wayward winds carried the fleet to Brazil, leading to the discovery of that rich country and its acquisition to the Portuguese crown. From Brazil Cabral struck out for India, which he reached, and established a factory at Calicut. When the fleet left the people rose and massacred the Portuguese. Another fleet of twenty vessels was sent out under Da Gama (1502). He avenged his slaughtered countrymen, established new relations with the people, and sailed to Cochin, whose king

Under whom did Portuguese greatness culminate? Tell of Vasco da Gama and his expeditions. What new route was opened up by Da Gama? 40. How came Brazil to be discovered? Trace the movements of Cabral and Da Gama.

became his ally. On his return he was loaded with new honors and retired for twenty-one years. The Portuguese dominion in the East having largely developed, John III. appointed Da Gama viceroy of the Indies (1524). Proceeding thither, he died at Cochin December 25, 1524.

41. Albuquerque.—Da Gama's conquests and discoveries were expanded by Affonso of Albuquerque, who made his first voyage to India in 1503. He conducted a number of expeditions, and was sent in 1507 to supersede Almeida, the governor of India. He made many conquests, took Goa and Malacca, where he captured an enormous booty and established the Portuguese power. His constant success struck terror into the natives, who finally settled peaceably down under their conquerors. Passing on from conquest to conquest, and repulsing all rivals sent to supersede him, he was at length recalled (1515), but died on the way and was buried at Goa. The Portuguese remained masters of the Indian Ocean and the ruling power on the east coast of Africa and south coast of Asia for nearly a century.

SECTION VI. Germany: Frederick III. (1440-1493) and Maximilian I. (1493-1519).

42. Reign of Frederick III.—Frederick III., the Pacific, was elected to succeed Albert II. He had many virtues, but was of too mild a character for the times and scenes in which he lived. His long reign was a series of wars against the Turks, the Hungarians, the Bohemians and Burgundians, and was troubled by revolts in the empire and in Italy. Matthias Corvinus, of Hungary, took from him Vienna and all Lower Austria (1485). On the death of Matthias (1490) he recovered these possessions. This

What office was conferred on Da Gama? 41. Tell of Albuquerque and his expeditions. What possessions did the Portuguese hold in Africa and Asia? 42. Describe the reign of Frederick III. What of Matthias Corvinus and Frederick?

success was added to by his son Maximilian, whom he had made King of Rome (1486), and to whom later on (1490) he confided the chief power, he himself retiring to his favorite studies. He was the last king of Germany to be crowned Emperor of Rome and King of the Lombards. On the death of Ladislas, son of Albert II., he inherited Lower Austria, and on the death of his own brother, Albert, Upper Austria. He united the two provinces and converted them into an archduchy.

43. Reign of Maximilian.—But the troubles of Ferdinand's reign did not end with Ferdinand's death. His son and successor, Maximilian, was drawn into a variety of entanglements abroad, while disturbed at home by actual or threatened upheavals. The Diet of Worms published a decree of eternal peace (1495), but it was more in name than in fact. A new Imperial Chamber was organized to maintain the peace. The empire was divided into ten circles: the Austrian, Bavarian, Swabian, Franconian, Upper Rhenish, Lower Rhenish, Westphalian, Upper Saxon, Lower Saxon, and Burgundian. A contest between the several states was henceforth to be treated as an act of rebellion against the whole empire. Maximilian, unfortunate as an emperor, meddling in many things, deceived at times by allies, deserted at others by his own troops, often in straits and sometimes penniless, was fortunate enough in his family alliances. Philip and Margaret, his children by Mary of Burgundy, married Juana and Juan, the children of Ferdinand and Isabella. Philip's sudden death in 1506 left the inheritance of Castile to his son Charles, who also succeeded Maximilian as Emperor of Germany. Charles' younger brother, Ferdinand, received Austria, and later, by marriage connections, Bohemia and Hungary.

To whom did Frederick cede the power? What did he inherit? 43. How was Maximilian's reign troubled? How did he divide the empire? What was done at the Diet of Worms? What alliances did Maximilian make?

CHAPTER III.

THE ITALIAN WARS OF THE FIFTEENTH AND SIXTEENTH CENTURIES.

THE Italian wars, begun at the close of the fifteenth century, ended in the middle of the sixteenth. The first period covers the expedition of Charles VIII., the wars of Louis XII., and the victory of Francis I. at Melegnano. The second period is given up to the rivalries of Francis I. and Charles V., Henry II. and Philip II.

SECTION I. Charles VIII. in Italy (1494-1495).

1. Conquest of Naples.—Charles, a boy of thirteen, succeeded to the noble inheritance of Louis XI. During his minority the kingdom was ably ruled under the regency of his eldest sister, Anne de Beaujeu. Charles, fired by the stories of Charlemagne, resolved on foreign conquest, and on attaining his majority took up the claim, that had fallen to Louis, of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. He entered Italy at the head of a powerful army and took Naples (1494-1495). Leaving a strong force behind him, he marched back at the head of nine thousand picked men and defeated on the way, at Fornovo, an army of forty thousand Italians (July 6, 1495).

2. The Spaniards in Naples.—Joanna II., Queen of Naples, invoked the aid of Alfonso, Prince of Aragon and son of Ferdinand I., against Louis III., Duke of Anjou, who laid claim to the throne. As a reward she offered him the duchy of Calabria and heirship to Naples. Alfonso compelled Louis to raise the siege of Naples and make peace on terms advantageous to the queen. The fickle Joanna veered from one side to the other, and Alfonso, sailing for

What is comprised in the Italian wars? 1. What conquests did Charles VIII. undertake? How did he succeed? 2. Who was the Queen of Naples and what alliance did she make? Did she remain steadfast?

Spain, left his Naples claim and fortunes in care of his brother, Don Pedro (1423). The Spaniards had to face a formidable combination under the queen, the pope, the Genoese, and the Dukes of Anjou and Milan. The queen, dying in 1435, left her crown to René of Anjou, brother and successor of Louis III. Alfonso, returning to make good his claim, was defeated and taken prisoner by the Genoese and the Duke of Milan. Winning over the latter, Alfonso was again enabled to press his claims, and in 1442 succeeded in making himself master of Naples. He was soon after recognized as king by the states of the realm and by Pope Eugenius IV. Thenceforth he resided in Naples, save for his brief dispossession by Charles VIII., heir to the last Duke of Anjou. Alfonso left Naples to his son Ferdinand, and Aragon, Sardinia, and Sicily to his brother John.

3. Coalition against the French.—The French rule was so oppressive that the states soon revolted and a league was formed between Venice, Pope Alexander VI., Alfonso, the Emperor Maximilian, and the Duke of Milan. They called over Gonsalvo de Cordova, who had just completed the conquest of Granada. Defeated at first, he speedily succeeded in driving the French from the country (1496). Charles was preparing for another expedition of conquest when he died (1496).

4. The French driven from Naples.—Charles, dying without issue, was succeeded on the throne of France by Louis, son of Charles, Duke of Orleans and great-grandson of Charles V. Louis laid claim to the duchy of Milan in right of his grandmother, Valentina Visconti. On becoming king he prepared to enforce his claims. He soon conquered the duchy (1499), and made an alliance with Fer-

How fared the Spaniards in Naples? What befell Alfonso? 3. How fared the French in Naples? Who drove them out? 4. Who succeeded Charles? What claim did Louis advance?

dinand of Aragon for joint rule with him in Naples. The allies quarrelled, and Gonsalvo of Cordova was again called in. With very inferior forces the great captain beat the French in a succession of engagements at Seminara, Cerignola, and finally in a battle on the Garigliano near Gaeta (1503), which ended the French pretensions to Naples. They were driven out of southern Italy.

5. The League of Cambrai and the Holy League.—Louis still held his hold on the north. Genoa was severely punished for asserting its freedom (1507). He next resolved on crushing the powerful republic of Venice, and to this end formed the League of Cambrai with Pope Julius II., the Emperor Maximilian, and Ferdinand of Aragon. The Venetians were defeated at Agnadello (1509), and were on the point of collapse when the pope joined them and formed, with Maximilian, Henry VIII. of England, and Ferdinand, the “Holy League” against the French. The French and Milanese, under the young and gallant Gaston de Foix, were successful till the death of the latter at Ravenna (1512). The victory of the allies at Novara (1513) was the death-blow to the French cause in Italy.

6. The allies next invaded France. The English gained a victory at Guinegate (the Battle of the Spurs). Louis, threatened by the Swiss and by Maximilian, came to terms (1514). He died soon after.

SECTION II. Francis I. (1513-1547).

7. Battle of Melegnano.—Louis, dying without male issue, was succeeded by Francis, Count of Angoulême, husband of Claude, the daughter of Louis XII. Francis pursued Louis’ scheme of Italian conquest and entered Italy at the head of forty thousand men. The Swiss opposed his

How did the French claims on Naples end? 5. What was the League of Cambrai? What was the Holy League? Where were the French finally beaten? 6. What was the result of Louis’ expeditions? 7. Who succeeded Louis?

passage at Melegnano, but after a most stubborn conflict were defeated, and Milan opened its gates to Francis (1515). The gallant king wisely granted an honorable peace to such formidable foes as the Swiss, and thus secured their alliance. He also made a concordat with Pope Leo X. (1516), agreeing to suppress the "Pragmatic Sanction" of Bourges, by virtue of which the French monarchs had claimed certain things in matters of ecclesiastical discipline and appointment irreconcilable with the freedom of the Church in their dominions.

What led Francis into Italy? Describe the battle of Melegnano. What terms did Francis make with the Swiss? What agreement did Francis make with the pope?

SECOND EPOCH.

FROM LUTHER TO THE ACCESSION OF LOUIS XIV. (1517-1643).

THIS epoch comprises the outbreak of the Protestant Reformation, the rivalry of the houses of France and Austria, and the religious wars in Europe.

CHAPTER I.

THE PROTESTANT REFORMATION.

THE religious movement known as the Protestant Reformation was started in Germany by Martin Luther, and was speedily taken up by the Scandinavian nations. Zwinglius preached it in Switzerland; Calvin consolidated it there and took it into France. His disciples carried it to Scotland, and the schism of Henry VIII. prepared England for it. True and needed reform in the Church was effected by the Council of Trent.

SECTION I. Germany: Luther (1483-1546).

1. After the victory of Melegnano there followed a lull rather than a peace in Europe. The pope took advantage of it to urge all Christian princes to unite against the Turks. He also announced a plenary indulgence to all who should contribute towards defraying the expenses of the crusade and completing the magnificent basilica of St. Peter's at Rome (1517).

2. **Tetzel and Luther.**—John Tetzel, an eloquent and learned Dominican, was appointed to publish and preach the indulgences in Saxony. He preached with much success until opposed by Martin Luther, an Augustinian friar and professor at the University of Wittenberg. Luther

What does the second epoch of modern history embrace? Over what area did the Protestant Reformation spread? 1. What followed the battle of Melegnano? 2. Who was Tetzel? Who was Luther?

was a man of great ability and force of character. He denounced the manner in which Tetzel carried out his commission, and on October 31, 1517, boldly posted up on the door of the Schlosskirche his protest in the shape of ninety-five theses against the sale and practice of indulgences, enclosing a copy at the same time to the Archbishop of Magdeburg and submitting everything to the pope.

3. Luther condemned by the Pope.—A long controversy followed the publication of the theses. The pope at first seemed to consider the quarrel as only one between rival monks. The time, however, was ripe for change. There were grave scandals in the Church as well as in the state; Europe had been distracted by wars and civil contentions, and in Germany the Hussite heresy was not yet altogether forgotten. Luther's theses kindled a flame in all Germany. On November 9, 1518, Pope Leo published a bull explaining the nature of indulgences and defining the right of the Holy See to grant them. Luther, growing bolder with his success, appealed from the bull to a general council. A reconciliation was effected, but broken again by fresh discussions, and finally the pope formally condemned Luther's writings as heretical (June 15, 1520).

4. The Diet of Worms (1521).—Luther responded by burning the bull at Wittenberg (December 10). He now appealed to the spirit of nationality against the pope, launched some forcible pamphlets against Rome, and issued an adroit address to the German nobles, on whose support he relied to maintain him in the struggle on which he had fairly entered. Summoned by Charles V. to the diet at Worms, he went there and defended his doctrines, falling back for his authority on the Scriptures,

What action did Luther take against Tetzel? 3. What was the condition of Europe at this time? How did the Pope act? How did Luther act? 4. What new course did Luther take? What did he maintain at the Diet of Worms? . . .

affirming that both pope and councils had often erred (April 18, 1521). He set up the Bible, his own conscience, and private judgment against tradition, the pope, and the teachings of the councils. The diet placed him under the ban of the empire, and he was declared an outlaw both in Church and state.

5. Spread of Heresy in Germany.—Luther found a protector in Frederick, Elector of Saxony. Returning to Wittenberg (1522) because of social outbreaks among his followers, he preached moderation and restored a kind of order. But his doctrines, equally subversive to state and Church, had spread abroad. Münzer, one of his followers, preached communism among the peasants, who rose, committed great excesses, and were put down with terrible cruelty (1525). The Anabaptists proclaimed both communism and free love. They seized upon Münster (1533), set John Boccold, a tailor's apprentice, at their head, and crowned him "King of Zion." The city was soon given up by both "king" and people to unbridled licentiousness, but was taken (June 24, 1535) and the leaders tortured and put to death.

6. The Diet of Spires (1529).—In 1525 Luther married Catharina von Bora, an ex-nun, "to please his father," as he expressed it, "to tease the pope, and to vex the devil." To put an end to anarchy the Diet of Spires (1529) allowed people to follow or not the new doctrines at their pleasure until the convocation of a council. The Lutherans, protesting against this, received the name of *Protestants*. They never agreed wholly among themselves on points of doctrine, the right of absolute private judgment and interpretation of Scripture being necessarily fatal to such agreement. In return for the protection of the princes Luther

What was the decision of the Diet of Worms? 5. Describe the result of Luther's teachings. Who were the Anabaptists? What did they teach and with what result? 6. What was decided at Spires?

had to concede to their demands, as when, in 1539, he gave his consent to the bigamy of Philip of Hesse.

7. The Diet of Augsburg (1530).—The princes and states protesting against the decision of the Diet of Spire were the Elector of Saxony, the Margrave of Brandenburg-Anspach, the Duke of Brunswick-Lüneburg, the Landgrave of Hesse, and fourteen imperial cities. Thenceforth the breach between Protestants and Catholics widened instead of narrowing, and led to long and bloody conflicts. Charles V. of Spain, who had been elected to succeed the Emperor Maximilian (1519), left the direction of affairs in Germany to his brother Ferdinand, who used his power with skill and discretion, but could not close the widening rent. Finally Charles himself summoned a diet at Augsburg (1530) by way of healing dissensions. The attempt failed.

8. The Smalcald League.—The Protestants drew up their confession of faith, which Charles refused to accept in his empire. The Protestant princes then refused to aid him against the Turks, and formed a confederation of their own at Smalcald (1531), in which they had the secret aid of England and France, both of these powers being jealous of Charles. Charles having granted the Protestant princes their demands pending the decisions of a council, they afterwards joined him against the Turks. Later on, when peace was restored in his Spanish dominions, he again turned to Germany, and, in alliance with the pope, his brother Ferdinand, and Duke Maurice of Saxony, entered on a campaign against the princes of the Smalcald League. He defeated them at Mühlberg (April 24, 1547), and bestowed Saxony on Maurice. In a second diet at Augsburg (1548) he issued the *Interim*, which was a second

7. Who declared against the decision at Spire? How did Protestants and Catholics stand? Who governed in Germany? 8. What was done at Smalcald? What action did Charles V. take? What was the *Interim*?

concession to the Protestants pending the decision of the council then assembled at Trent. Maurice, deserting the emperor and leaguings with the King of France, defeated Charles, and at the treaty of Passau (August 2, 1552) exacted all the Protestant demands.

SECTION II. Scandinavian Nations.

9. Christian II.; Gustavus Vasa.—Christian II. succeeded his father, John, on the reunited thrones of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden (1513). His weakness and cruelty led to constant revolts and trouble. He signalized his triumph over his enemies by a most barbarous massacre. Among the nobles who fell was Eric Johanssen, a Swedish senator and father of Gustavus, belonging to the house of Vasa. Gustavus, who had been held by Christian as a hostage, made his escape. Hastening to Sweden, he roused the peasants there and soon found himself at the head of twenty thousand men.

10. Christian deposed.—Christian threatened to slay the mother and sisters of Gustavus, unless he submitted. Gustavus refused, and the cruel threat was executed. Finally all the people rose and drove Christian from his kingdom (April, 1523), thus dissolving once for all the Calmar Union. Frederick of Holstein was called to the throne of Denmark. An attempt by Christian to regain his lost power failed in 1531. He was taken prisoner and kept in confinement till his death.

11. Protestantism established in Sweden.—Meanwhile Gustavus, who had been offered the crown of Sweden by the nobles, refused it for that of administrator. On the deposition of Christian, Gustavus accepted the title of king and entered Stockholm in triumph (June, 1523). He had

What of Maurice of Saxony? 9. Describe the reign of Christian II. How did he signalize his triumph? Who was Gustavus Vasa? 10. How was the Calmar Union dissolved? What befell Christian?

been a secret partisan of Luther, whom he met at Lübeck. He began his reign by attacks on the Catholic clergy. This provoked insurrection, which he quelled. Convoking the states at Westeras (1527), he obtained the exclusion of the bishops from the senate and their subjection to the civil power. From this to laying hands on the Church properties was a short step. Gustavus was now crowned at Upsal (January 12, 1528) by Lars Petri, a Lutheran bishop. In the same year Lutheranism was declared to be the religion of the state in a national council held at Örebro. Frederick, who had succeeded Christian on the throne of Denmark, was also a partisan of Lutheranism, which he imposed upon his people at the Diet of Copenhagen (1536).

SECTION III. Switzerland and France.

12. The Swiss Protestants.—Zwinglius, a Swiss priest, started the revolt against the Church in Switzerland. In 1518 he was called to the charge of the cathedral church in Zurich. He immediately began preaching against the pope, and proceeded to inveigh against the celibacy of the clergy, confession, fasting, and the ceremonies of the Catholic faith. He married in 1524. He and Luther did not agree in all their tenets—for instance, in the doctrine of the real presence of Jesus Christ in the Eucharist, which Luther maintained. Switzerland was made the battleground of religious strife. The opposing parties appealed to arms, and in one of the contests Zwinglius perished (1531).

13. John Calvin (1509-1564).—A Frenchman was destined to carry on the work of the Reformation in Switzerland. John Calvin, born in Noyon, Picardy, and destined

11. How was Protestantism established in Sweden? How in Denmark? 12. What of Zwinglius, his work and teaching? Describe his career. What was the effect of his teachings in Switzerland? How did he end?

for the Church, was dismissed the university for gross immorality, studied law, and early imbibed the doctrines of the Reformers. Driven from Paris, where the teachings of Luther had been condemned, he was protected at Nérac by Margaret of Navarre, sister of Francis I. and a patroness of the new doctrines. There he began the compilation of his *Institutes*, or form of doctrine. He afterwards retired to Basle, in Switzerland, where he met the German Reformers and completed and published his *Institutes* (1535). These maintain that the greater part of mankind are predestined to perdition, because such is God's will. He denied the doctrine of the real presence in the Eucharist, renounced bishops and priests as well as the pope, and abolished festivals and sacred ceremonies.

14. Calvin in Geneva.—In 1536 he went to Geneva, then distracted with the reform, which it had received from William Farel, also a Frenchman. There Calvin began to preach. The pair were banished by the city council in 1538. In 1540 he married. In 1541 he was invited back to Geneva. The bishop was expelled and Catholic worship abolished. Calvin drew up what is called the presbyterial system of worship, which the Genevese accepted and which spread to other cities and lands. John Knox, a bad priest, a friend and disciple of Calvin's, took it into Scotland. Though Calvin managed to maintain his authority till his death, there were frequent disputes, civil and ecclesiastical, in Geneva. Michael Servetus, a Spaniard, and a convert to the reform, was condemned to death, with Calvin's consent, for the utterance of certain doctrines, and burnt at Geneva (October, 1553).

15. Lutheranism in France.—Luther's heresy was condemned by the Sorbonne. But the alliance of the French

13. What of Calvin's early life? What were his *Institutes*? What was the substance of Calvin's doctrine? 14. How did Calvin fare in Geneva? What did he establish there? Tell of Servetus.

king with the German princes favored it, as did also the social disturbances of the time. Francis I. issued some severe edicts against it (1535). These he afterwards modified. During the reign of his successor, Henry II., the Protestants became much more numerous and aggressive.

SECTION IV. Protestantism in England.

16. Happy Opening of Henry's Reign.—Henry VIII. (1509-1547) succeeded his father, Henry VII., on the throne of England. By a dispensation of the pope he was allowed to marry Catherine of Aragon, the young widow of his brother Arthur, who had died after a six months' union. The accession of the young and popular prince was welcomed by the people as a relief from the cold and grasping rule of his father. An invasion of France which met with some success increased the monarch's popularity. During his absence James IV. of Scotland invaded England, but was defeated and his army destroyed by the Earl of Surrey at Flodden Field (September 9, 1513). Henry returned to enjoy a double triumph.

17. Cardinal Wolsey.—Thomas Wolsey, an ecclesiastic of great ability and political sagacity, who had been chaplain to Henry VII. and entrusted with some important missions by him, won favor with the young king; was made his almoner, and soon after Archbishop of York (1514). In the following year he was made a cardinal by Pope Leo X. and lord chancellor by Henry. Most of the administrative power of the realm, as well as the chief power in spirituals, fell into Wolsey's hands. More a statesman than a churchman, and fond of power, he ruled the young king by guiding when he could and humoring him when he found it necessary.

15. How did Lutheranism fare in France? 16. Whom did Henry VIII. marry? How did Henry's reign open? What happened at Flodden Field? 17. Who was Wolsey? How did he rise and to what?

18. Henry pleads for a Divorce.—The marriage of Henry VIII. with Catherine of Aragon was solemnized at Greenwich June 7, 1509. In 1521 Henry received from Pope Leo X. the title of Defender of the Faith for a book he had written against Luther. Henry had never been a moral man. He finally fell under the influence of Anne Boleyn, a maid of honor to the queen. Anne was a Lutheran. Feeling her power over the licentious king, she resolved on becoming Queen of England. Accordingly Henry began to agitate for a divorce from the pious and true wife to whom he had been married now nearly twenty years, alleging as his plea scruples of conscience at having married his brother's wife. He appealed to Rome to grant him a divorce. The appeal, after the most careful examination, was rejected. Out of Henry's anger and lust grew the separation of England from Rome.

19. Fall of Wolsey (1529-1530).—Henry's passions grew with his years. Wolsey's failure to procure the divorce led to his fall and disgrace. He died lamenting that he had not served his God as faithfully as his king (1530). Sir Thomas More, a zealous Catholic, and reputed to be one of the most learned men of his time, succeeded Wolsey as chancellor. Corruption had eaten its way into the English Church, and Henry found ecclesiastics ready to sustain him against Rome in the matter of divorce. Such was Cranmer, a secret adherent of Luther. But the arch-leader of the whole movement was Thomas Cromwell, who had formerly been a creature of Wolsey's, and who on that minister's fall succeeded in attaching himself to the service of the king.

20. The King declared Supreme Head of the Church in England.—Under Cromwell's influence and advice Henry

18. What title did Henry VIII. receive from the pope? Why did he seek a divorce? How did Rome act? 19. What led to Wolsey's fall? Who succeeded Wolsey? Who abetted Henry in the divorce?

resolved on following the example of the German princes and breaking with Rome. In 1531 the clergy were compelled to acknowledge the king as "protector and only supreme head of the Church in England." Henry had already begun to fill his empty treasury from the possessions of the Church. In 1531 the divorce question was for the first time brought before Parliament. In 1532 the weak clergy, fearful of losing everything, petitioned the king in convocation to withdraw from the See of Rome. The common people began to rise against the proposed changes. Sir Thomas More resigned his chancellorship. The queen had already been removed from court for refusing to renounce her rights, and Anne was given apartments in the palace. On January 25, 1533, the king's marriage with Anne was publicly announced. The pope issued a decree of excommunication against both.

21. Divorce of Catherine; Execution of Fisher and More.
—Convocation met and, in obedience to the king, declared his marriage with Catherine null and void. A mock court, Cranmer presiding, summoned the queen to appear at Dunstable. She refused, and judgment was given against the marriage (May 23, 1533). A universal feeling of anger was aroused against the king both in and out of England. In 1534 Parliament, under Henry's direction, abolished the papal authority in England and passed an act of succession, settling the crown on the children of Henry and Anne, of whose union had been born the Princess Elizabeth, the Princess Mary being the sole surviving child of the queen. Henry was declared to be supreme head of the Church in England. Bishop Fisher and Sir Thomas More were executed for refusing to take the oath of supremacy to the adulterous monarch.

20. What title was conferred on Henry? How did the English clergy act? What changes took place at court? 21. By whom was the divorce proclaimed? What of the papal authority? What of Fisher and More?

22. Suppression of the Monasteries.—In 1535 Thomas Cromwell was made visitor-general of all the monasteries in England and the work of their spoliation and suppression began. A formidable insurrection, called the “Pilgrimage of Grace,” sprang up in the north, but was bloodily put down. Queen Catherine died in 1536, and four months later Anne was beheaded by order of the king, and a new favorite, Jane Seymour, taken in her place. Of this union came Edward (October 12, 1537), his mother dying twelve days after his birth. Executions were frequent. By 1539 the final dissolution of the monasteries had taken place and the six articles constituting the new Church of England were drawn up.

23. Last Days of Henry's Reign.—In 1540 Henry married Anne of Cleves, whom he soon after repudiated and took Catherine Howard in her stead. Catherine was speedily sent to the block, and the king then married Catherine Parr (1543), who survived him. In 1541 the aged Countess of Salisbury, last of the Plantagenets, was led to the block; and Henry continued to the close of his reign to persecute Catholics and Reformers. The Earl of Surrey, head of the Catholic party, was one of Henry's last victims (1547), and the Duke of Norfolk, Surrey's father, only escaped by the king going before him. Henry died January 28, 1547, leaving a provision in his will that daily Masses should be said in perpetuity for his soul. He bequeathed the crown to his son Edward.

24. Edward VI. (1547-1553).—Edward was only ten years of age on ascending the throne. The government during his minority was entrusted to a council. His uncle, Edward Seymour, was created Duke of Somerset, protector of the realm, and guardian of the king. His

22. What became of the monasteries? What was the Pilgrimage of Grace? Describe the progress of events. 23. Tell of Henry's marriages; of his executions; of his death and will. 24. Who governed during Edward VI.'s minority?

brother, Sir Thomas Seymour, was appointed lord high admiral, and thus the Seymours really ruled the realm.

25. Protestantism established in England.—The Seymours were a strongly Protestant family and set about making thorough and completing the schismatical work begun by Henry VIII. The young prince had been steeped in Protestantism from his cradle. Henry's "Six Articles" were repealed as being too closely allied to the Catholic creed. Men were sent to all parts of the country to preach against the Papacy, the mass of the English people being still Catholic. Uniformity of public worship was enforced and a *Book of Common Prayer* drawn up. The clergy were freed from their vow of celibacy. All persons, under severe penalties, were commanded to attend the public worship. Bonner, Bishop of London; Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, and others were deprived of their sees for refusing to conform to the new regulations.

26. Fall of the Seymours.—Several insurrections, some of a formidable character, broke out during this reign. The number of poor was largely increased by the closure of the monasteries, which deprived them of work and a means of livelihood. The laws against the poor were made very stringent. The Seymours quarrelled, and, at the instance of the Duke of Somerset, his brother, the admiral, was beheaded. The protector himself had grown enormously rich and aroused the enmity and jealousy of the other nobles. A party was formed against him under Dudley, Earl of Warwick. He was finally dismissed and thrown into the Tower (October 4, 1549). Warwick succeeded to power and was created Duke of Northumberland. He had Somerset attainted, accused of felony, and executed (January 22, 1552). He then persuaded the king to exclude his sisters

25. What measures did the Seymours take to establish Protestantism? How did the bishops act? 26. What was the effect of closing the monasteries? Describe the fall of the Seymours. Who took their place?

and bestow the succession on Jane Grey, daughter of the Marquis of Dorset and great-granddaughter of Henry VII., who was married to Guilford Dudley, Northumberland's son. The king, always weakly, sank rapidly after this arrangement had been made, and died July 6, 1553.

27. Queen Mary (1553-1558).—Northumberland proclaimed his daughter-in-law queen and had her conducted to the Tower. The proclamation was coldly received by the people, who favored the Princess Mary. On hearing of Edward's death Mary at once claimed the throne, and the people flocked to her standard. Marching on London, despite the feeble opposition of Northumberland, she entered the capital in triumph. Northumberland and two of his chief abettors were executed as traitors. Suffolk and Lady Jane Grey were confined in the Tower. An insurrection led by Sir Thomas Wyatt, and in which Suffolk was implicated, led to their execution (1554).

28. Catholicity re-established in England.—Mary began her reign by a general amnesty. The English people being still largely Catholic, the religious laws of Edward VI. were repealed by Parliament and those of Henry VIII. restored. Mary thus became, much against her will, head of the Church in England. Bishop Gardiner was appointed chancellor. Mary, whose hand had been much sought after in marriage, now selected as her spouse Philip of Spain, son of Charles V. The marriage, which was celebrated July 25, 1554, was extremely unpopular in England. Both houses of Parliament next petitioned the queen to beg the pope to readmit the kingdom into the Catholic fold. The reconciliation was effected (November 30, 1554) in the presence of Cardinal Pole, the papal legate, a son of the Countess of Salisbury executed in the reign of Henry.

What arrangement did Northumberland make for the succession? 27. What followed on Edward's death? 28. How did Mary's reign open? Whom did Mary marry? What request did the houses of Parliament make?

Thus the established religion of the realm again became Catholic, and nonconformity, as in the reigns of Edward VI. and Henry VIII., was made a penal offence.

29. Persecutions.—This led to persecutions, and many nonconformists suffered death. Among these was Cranmer, who first of all recanted, and, finding that did not avail him, went back again. He was burnt. This persecution darkened and embittered Mary's reign, which had opened so auspiciously. Her marriage, too, proved an unhappy one. For Philip's sake she engaged in war with France (1557) and lost Calais (1558), the last of the English possessions there. Mary died in the summer of the same year, after recognizing the Princess Elizabeth as her successor.

SECTION V. True Reform; the Council of Trent (1545-1563).

30. Reforms decreed.—The Protestant Reformation had already made considerable progress when Pope Paul III. resolved on calling a general council to bring about needed reforms in the Church and refute the new errors. Owing to the disturbances of the time it was long before the council could assemble. It finally opened at Trent (December 13, 1545) and lasted eighteen years, during the reigns of four popes. It proclaimed the authority of Catholic tradition, the infallibility of the Church, the primacy of St. Peter and his successors, the utility of indulgences, the necessity of good works, the efficacy of the seven sacraments, the inviolability of marriage, together with other articles of Catholic faith, all of which had been denied in one way or another by the new Reformers. In addition important disciplinary measures were drawn up for the regulation of the bishops and the clergy, and the encroachment of secular

How was the Catholic faith restored? 29. What led to the persecutions? What befell Cranmer? Describe the close of Mary's reign. 30. Why was the Council of Trent called? What did the council proclaim?

princes on the rights and freedom of the Church was condemned.

31. Great Saints and New Orders.—The sixteenth century was rich in great saints. Pope St. Pius V. and St. Charles Borromeo greatly aided true reform in the Church and among the clergy. New religious families sprang up: the *Theatines*, under St. Gaetan; the *Barefooted Carmelites*, under St. John of the Cross; the *Carmelite Nuns*, under St. Teresa; the *Congregation of the Oratory*, under St. Philip Neri; and, above all, the great *Company of Jesus*, under St. Ignatius of Loyola (1534).

CHAPTER II.

RIVALRY OF FRANCE AND AUSTRIA.

THE rivalry of France and Austria in the sixteenth century comprises the struggle of Francis I. and Henry II. against Charles V. and Philip II., and ends with the treaty of Cambrai, which closed the Italian wars.

SECTION I. Francis I. and Charles V. (1519-1547).

1. Rival Claimants for the Imperial Throne.—The heresy of Luther had already begun to create new dissensions among the German states when the death of the Emperor Maximilian (1519) left the imperial throne vacant. Francis I. immediately aspired to fill it, but had for a rival Charles, who had shortly before ascended the throne of Spain. Charles was the eldest son of Philip of Burgundy, Archduke of Austria, and Juana, daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella. The Emperor Maximilian was his paternal grandfather.

31. Mention some of the great saints and orders of the sixteenth century. What does the rivalry between France and Austria embrace? 1. What followed on the death of Maximilian? Who were rivals for the imperial throne?

2. Acquisitions of Charles V.—By the death of Philip in 1506 Charles succeeded to the title and the possessions of the house of Hapsburg as well as to the dukedom of Burgundy. By the death of Ferdinand in 1516 he inherited Spain, the kingdom of Naples, and the newly-discovered continent of the West. Already the most powerful monarch in Europe, he was chosen Emperor of Germany over Francis (June 28, 1519). This led to the rivalry between Francis and Charles which embroiled all Europe in war.

3. War between Charles V. and Francis I.—Excuses for quarrel were numerous, and Francis began by an expedition into Navarre, which ended in defeat. The war spread into the duchy of Burgundy—called also the Netherlands—and into Italy. Charles, attempting to invade France from the Netherlands, was checked at Mézières by the gallant Bayard. Francis marched into the Netherlands. Charles, always good at alliances, had formed one with the pope and Henry VIII. of England. A papal army under Prosper Colonna took Milan, and soon nothing was left to the French of their conquests in Italy save Cremona. At the same time Henry VIII. declared war against Francis (May 29, 1522), and an army of imperialists and English advanced to within seven leagues of Paris. Angered at the unjust treatment he had received, the Constable de Bourbon deserted to Charles.

4. Battle of Pavia.—Francis, though his funds were exhausted, showed great bravery and resolution. He sent an army of thirty thousand men to Milan, but they were defeated. De Bourbon was one of the chief leaders against his countrymen. In a short time the French were driven from Italy, with the loss of the gallant Bayard (1524). They were followed by the imperialists, who besieged Mar-

2. To what possessions did Charles V. succeed? 3. Over what area did the struggle between Charles and Francis spread? Give a sketch of the struggle. What of De Bourbon? 4. Sketch the campaign in Italy.

seilles. Francis hastened to the relief of the city, drove the allies back into Italy, and, following them, laid siege to Pavia. Here he suffered a complete defeat and was himself taken prisoner by Marshal Lannoy (February 24, 1525). The conditions of his restoration to liberty were extremely harsh, and were protested against even by Charles' allies. Charles, however, insisted, gained many promises, a large accession of territory, and the sons of Francis as hostages for their father. These were confirmed at the Convention of Madrid (1526). On regaining his liberty Francis repudiated the whole and sent another army into Italy.

5. The Peace of Cambrai (1529).—The pope, Clement VII., now sided with Francis, and the sympathy of England was with him. The imperialists defeated them, and De Bourbon marched on Rome, which was taken and sacked, though he lost his life in the siege. The pope was made a prisoner, and so held by Charles for several months, but, after making important concessions, he was released. A French army under Lautrec came to the rescue, and, after gaining several victories, was decimated by disease before Naples (1528). Peace was finally concluded by the treaty of Cambrai (August 5, 1529). By this treaty Francis renounced his Italian claims, but was allowed to keep Burgundy. He also promised Charles two million crowns as ransom for his sons, and married Eleanor, queen-dowager of Portugal and sister to Charles.

6. Reforms by Francis I.—The treaty of Cambrai brought a brief respite of peace. This Francis utilized in attending to home affairs. He retrenched expenses, founded the great College of France, and gave especial attention to the encouragement of letters and arts. Moved by gross insults to the Catholic faith and worship, he proceeded

What happened at Pavia? What conditions were imposed on Francis? 5. What alliance was formed against Charles? Sketch the campaign. What was settled at Cambrai? 6. What reforms did Francis effect?

rigorously against the French Reformers, but relaxed his measures (1535) for political reasons. He reorganized the army and strengthened the navy. During his reign French mariners discovered Canada.

7. Peace again Broken.—Francis soon found another pretext for quarrelling with the emperor. The truth is, all these men, Charles, Francis, Henry VIII., regarded their kingdoms rather as personal property and as means of advancing purely personal interests than as great trusts confided for a time to their hands and guidance. Francis laid claim to Savoy, entered and overran it (1535). By way of retaliation Charles entered Provence. Francis made an infamous alliance with the Turks. The imperialists, wasted by famine and pestilence, were compelled to retire from Provence, and Charles' troops were driven from the north of France. An armistice was concluded at Nice (1538), arranging a truce for ten years.

8. The Peace of Crespy (1544).—Four years later war broke out again. The league of Francis with the Turks had outraged Europe. Henry of England now took the side of Charles. France was invaded from the north and from the south. The French gained a great victory at Ceresole (April 14, 1544), but little came of it. The victory was balanced by others of the imperialists, both on sea and land, and a peace favorable to Charles was finally concluded at Crespy (September 18, 1544). Peace was made with England in 1546. Francis died in the following year (March 31, 1547) and was succeeded by his son, Henry.

SECTION II. Henry II. (1547-1559).

9. Successes of Henry.—Henry pursued his father's policy. He was severe against the Protestants, who under Francis'

7. How did the monarchs regard their kingdoms? Sketch the new campaign.
8. Why did Francis lose his allies? What victory did the French gain? Who gained in the end? 9. What policy did Henry II. pursue?

toleration had become more turbulent. He joined in alliance with Scotland, gained possession of Mary Stuart, whom his son, the Dauphin, married, and compelled the English to surrender Boulogne (1550). He made a secret alliance with Maurice of Saxony, who deserted Charles. By this alliance Henry succeeded in gaining possession of the three bishoprics of Metz, Toul, and Verdun (1552).

10. Abdication of Charles V.—Charles, having pacified his German Protestant foes at the treaty of Passau (August 2, 1552), attempted to retake the bishoprics, but was foiled before Metz, defended by Francis, Duke of Guise. After some successes he was again defeated at Renty (1554), and at the same time lost Savoy and Piedmont to the French. Charles now resolved on retiring from the world, announcing his intention at the Diet of Augsburg (1555). He left the German throne to his brother Ferdinand, and Spain, the Indies, Naples, and the Netherlands to his son Philip. Then he entered the monastery of St. Just, where he remained till his death (September 21, 1558).

11. New War and Disasters to the French.—The abdication of Charles brought peace for a time, but the peace was soon broken. The Duke of Guise led an army into Italy to conquer Milan and Naples, then ruled by Philip's lieutenant, the Duke of Alva. Alva disposed of the French in two brief campaigns. Philip, through his wife, Mary, made an alliance with England. An army under the command of Duke Philibert of Savoy entered Picardy and besieged St. Quentin, defended by Admiral Coligny. The Constable Montmorency, hastening to relieve the place, suffered a disastrous defeat (1557), and St. Quentin fell. Other victories followed in rapid succession, and only the jealousy of the Spanish and German allies prevented a march on Paris.

What important possessions did Henry II. gain? 10. What disasters befell Charles V.? What strange resolve did he take? To whom did he leave his possessions? 11. What followed Charles' abdication? Sketch the campaign.

12. Treaty of Câteau-Cambrésis (1559).—The Duke of Guise suddenly appeared before Calais and took it (1558), thus capturing the last vestige of English possessions in France. He then invaded the Netherlands, but was defeated by Count Egmont at the battle of Gravelines. Henry was now led to conclude what to him was a disastrous peace at Câteau-Cambrésis (April 2, 1559). France surrendered her dreams of Italian conquest. Savoy, which had been taken from Philibert, was restored to him, and Henry gave him his sister in marriage. His daughter he gave to Philip, whose wife, Mary of England, had died the year before. France retained the strong fortresses of Metz, Toul, and Verdun, together with Calais.

13. Close of the Italian Wars.—Thus the Italian wars ended. They had racked Europe for sixty-five years, greatly aided the spread of heresy, brought kingdoms and peoples to the verge of ruin, and left the east of Europe open to the Turks. After the peace Philip sailed to Spain with his bride, leaving his half-sister, Margaret, Duchess of Parma, as regent of the Netherlands, and Alva in charge of his Italian possessions. During the celebrations attending the double wedding Henry was mortally wounded in a tournament by Montgomery, the captain of his guards (July 10, 1559). He left the throne to his son, Francis II., husband of Mary, Queen of Scots.

SECTION III. The Ottoman Turks; Soliman II. (1520-1566).

14. Turkish Conquests.—While Christian Europe was rending itself in the West and South the Turks were making solid progress in the East. Selim I., after wresting Syria, Palestine, and Egypt from the Sultan of Egypt, died and was succeeded by his son Soliman, called the *Magnifi-*

12. Who took Calais? What was the treaty of Câteau-Cambrésis? 13. What was the effect of the Italian wars on Europe? How did Henry II. die? Who succeeded him? 14. How were the Turks progressing?

cent. He overran Hungary and took Belgrade (1521). He next resolved on taking Rhodes, defended by the Knights of St. John under their grand master, L'Isle-Adam.

15. Siege of Rhodes (1522).—Soliman sent an overwhelming army and fleet against the garrison of seven thousand men. For six months this gallant little band kept the whole Turkish force at bay. Wasted by famine and disease, they were at last compelled to surrender by honorable capitulation what the Turks could not take by force of arms. They had held the island two hundred and twelve years. Charles V. awarded to them the isle of Malta for their residence.

16. Siege of Vienna.—In 1526 Soliman made a second invasion of Hungary. Louis II. met him at Mohacz (August 29, 1526), but was defeated and slain. The queen took the crown to her brother, Ferdinand of Austria, who was acknowledged king by the nobles of the western counties. The popular party chose John Zápolya, the waywode of Transylvania, who put himself under the protection of Soliman, thus further weakening the kingdom. Soliman took Buda in 1529 and advanced on Vienna at the head of a great army. After repeated and desperate assaults he was compelled to retire, leaving behind him eighty thousand dead. A second attempt failed in 1532.

17. Capture of Tunis (1535).—In the East Soliman added to his possessions Persia, Armenia, and Irak (1534). In 1536 he joined Francis I. against Charles V., and sent the renegade Barbarossa to sweep the Mediterranean. He conquered Croatia in 1537 and Yemen in 1538. On the death of John Zápolya (1540) Soliman upheld his son, John Sigismund, against Ferdinand, from whom in 1547 he exacted a humiliating truce. Barbarossa, having seized Algiers in

15. Who besieged Rhodes? Describe the siege. 16. What happened at Mohacz? Tell of the dissensions in Hungary. What great city was besieged? 17. What conquests and alliance did Soliman make? What of Hungary?

1518, converted it into a den of pirates. Conquering Tunis, he made it his chief headquarters for operations on the Mediterranean and Atlantic coasts. Thousands of Christians were led captive thither, and Charles V. resolved on putting an end to the infamous traffic. Giving the command of his fleet to Andrew Doria, the Genoese admiral, Charles took Tunis and released twenty thousand Christian slaves (1535). A second expedition against Algiers failed (1541).

CHAPTER III.

RELIGIOUS WARS IN FRANCE.

IN France, as in Germany, immediately after the Reformation the question of religion entered very largely into politics. Armed dissension and conspiracy against the monarch arose under Francis II., developed under Charles IX., and were continued under Henry III. and Henry IV.

SECTION I. Francis II. (1559-1560).

1. Rivalry of the Guises and Bourbons.—Francis II. ascended the throne at the age of sixteen. His wife, Mary Stuart, was niece of the Duke of Guise and of Cardinal Lorraine. The family of the Guises had rendered important services to the state, and on Francis' accession they were called to the direction of affairs. This gave great umbrage to the princes of the blood, Anthony de Bourbon, King of Navarre, and his brother Louis, Prince of Condé. These, with Admiral Coligny, set themselves at the head of the Protestants, who, under the vacillating policy of Francis I. and during the troubled reign of Henry II., had made considerable progress. They were followers of Calvin rather than of Luther.

Tell of the exploits of Barbarossa. Where and by whom was Barbarossa defeated? How did the Reformation affect France? 1. Whom did Francis II. select as advisers? What was the result of this choice?

2. Conspiracy.—A vast conspiracy was formed, with Condé at the head, and embracing the chief nobles of France. The court was sitting at Amboise. The plan was to enter the town on a fixed day, massacre the Guises, and seize the king. The Duke of Guise was apprised of the plot on the eve of its execution. As the conspirators entered they were cut down. The conspiracy was unmasked. A number of executions followed. Condé was arrested and condemned as a traitor, when the sudden death of the king prevented the execution of the sentence.

SECTION II. Regency of Catherine de' Medici.

3. Religious Dissensions.—Francis' younger brother, Charles IX., a child of ten, succeeded, with his mother, Catherine de' Medici, as regent. Catherine had been implicated in the Calvinist plots. Toleration was now the order of the day, and hot disputes broke out between the respective followers of Luther and Calvin. A famous discussion was held at Poissy, in presence of the court, between Catholic doctors and Protestant ministers. The chief result of the conference was the conversion of Anthony of Navarre, who abjured his heresy (1561).

4. The Triumvirate.—In January, 1562, was published an edict granting Protestants liberty of worship outside cities, and forbidding them to interfere with Catholic worship. This satisfied neither party. A conflict between some Protestants and the servants of the Duke of Guise led to a general outbreak (1562). The one party flew to arms under the Prince de Condé, the others under the Duke of Guise. Civil war raged and was abetted by Elizabeth of England, who received the town of Havre in

2. What conspiracy was formed and with what object? How did the conspirators fare? 3. What followed on the death of Francis II.? What occurred at Poissy? 4. What edict was published and with what result?

reward for assistance given Condé. The King of Navarre now assumed the lead of the Catholic party. Under him were Condé, the Constable de Montmorency, and Marshal St. André, called the "Triumvirate." The royal army triumphed, but the King of Navarre fell at the siege of Rouen. The Protestants were defeated. Condé and Montmorency were captured.

5. Peace of Amboise (1563).—Orleans, the Protestant stronghold, still held out. Condé was on the point of taking it when he was assassinated by a Protestant (1563). St. André had already met a like fate. Catherine, being rid of the "Triumvirate," assumed the reins herself and published the "Peace of Amboise," granting complete liberty of worship to the Protestants (1563). This brought peace for a time, and both parties united in wresting Havre from the English.

6. Renewal of the Quarrel.—But even if the mass of the people were willing to unite, the leaders would not. Henry of Lorraine, who succeeded his father as Duke of Guise, swore to avenge his murder, in which he believed Coligny to have had a hand. New dissensions arose. Condé and Coligny attempted to surprise the court at Meaux. The attempt failed, and Montmorency defeated Condé at St. Denis, but fell in the hour of victory (1567). A new peace followed, with renewed concessions on the part of the queen-mother, but it only lasted a few months.

7. Peace of St. Germain (1570).—There was a fresh outbreak in 1568. Protestantism was now interdicted under penalty of death. Henry of Anjou, brother of the king, defeated the rebels at Jarnac, where Condé was slain, and again at Moncontour (1569), where Coligny lost half his army. Coligny, who was always at his best under defeat,

Describe the Triumvirate and what came of it. 5. What assassinations took place? Tell of the peace of Amboise. 6. What caused a fresh outbreak? 7. Describe the progress of events.

rallied a new army, and, profiting by the divisions of his foes, threatened the capital. A compromise was effected by the peace of St. Germain (1570), and Coligny restored to court favor. The Protestants, or Huguenots, as they were called, were allowed to retain the fortresses of Rochelle, Cognac, Montauban, and Charité.

8. St. Bartholomew (1572).—The peace of St. Germain, like all the others, was of short duration. It was broken by a bloody massacre of the Huguenots on St. Bartholomew's day (August 24, 1572). As a pledge of reconciliation with the Protestants the hand of Margaret of Valois, sister of the king, had been promised to Henry de Bourbon, the young King of Navarre, and now one of the Huguenot leaders. At the sudden and suspicious death of Jeanne d'Albret, Henry's mother, the mutual mistrust of the opposing parties again broke out. The jealousy of the chiefs was always ready to take advantage of such a state of feeling. The Duke of Guise had neither forgotten nor forgiven the death of his father. Catherine began to tremble for the royal authority. Paris was full of Huguenots, come to attend the wedding festivities. Coligny was fired at and seriously wounded by an assassin. This exasperated the Huguenots. Their threats and Coligny's power over the king alarmed Catherine, and it was resolved to forestall the Huguenots by massacring them.

9. The king, wrought on by his mother, reluctantly sanctioned the order for a general massacre of the Huguenots, which was carried into effect in Paris and in the principal provincial cities. Coligny was stabbed by partisans of the Duke of Guise. Henry of Navarre and Condé only escaped by professing to become Catholics. Estimates as to the number of victims vary considerably. It was certainly very

Tell of the peace of St. Germain. 8. How was the peace broken? Describe the conflict that ensued. What resolve was taken by the court? 9. Describe the massacre of St. Bartholomew.

great, and the probabilities are that it lay somewhere between ten and twenty thousand.

10. News of the Massacre in Rome.—A *Te Deum* was sung in Rome, by order of Pope Gregory XIII., in honor of the event. But this was done under the false impression that the massacre was begun on the part of the Calvinists, and that it all grew out of a foiled conspiracy against the French state and the Catholic Church. The massacre only rendered the surviving Huguenots more desperate than ever. They held their strong places in spite of all the efforts of the crown. Henry of Anjou was called away from the siege of La Rochelle to assume the crown of Poland. Charles, worn out by intrigue, remorse, and disease, died in 1574.

SECTION III. Henry III. (1574-1589).

11. The "Holy League."—As Charles died childless, the throne passed by right to his brother Henry, now King of Poland. Henry returned to France and mounted the throne. The Huguenots had now allied with the German Protestants, but these were beaten at Dormans by the Duke of Guise (1575). Henry, jealous of Guise's popularity, concluded the peace of Beaulieu (1576), which was more favorable to the Huguenots than to the victorious Catholics. The latter were naturally indignant. A "Holy League" was formed against the sectaries under the leadership of the Duke of Guise. Henry contrived to make himself nominal leader, but the Leaguers, mistrusting him, took their orders from Guise.

12. Henry of Navarre, having escaped from the confinement in which he had been placed since St. Bartholo-

10. How was the news of the massacre received in Rome? What was the result of the massacre? 11. Who succeeded Charles? How did Henry act? What was the Holy League? 12. Who again led the Huguenots?

mew's massacre, again assumed the lead of the Huguenots. A new war broke out. The Leaguers stood aloof from the king, who was compelled to sign another peace at Bergerac (1577). Another revolt was ended by the treaty of Fleix (1580).

13. Henry of Navarre.—Henry had lost the confidence of both sides, and the dissoluteness of his life belied the promise of his hardy youth. By the death of his younger brother, the gallant Duke d'Alençon (1584), the succession passed to Henry of Navarre, the king himself being childless. But Henry was a Protestant, and the French law made it imperative that a Catholic prince should succeed. To provide against the threatened danger the Leaguers assembled at Paris. Guise proposed to make the Cardinal de Bourbon, uncle to Henry of Navarre, heir-presumptive to the throne. The king tried to play between both parties. The Huguenots, emboldened by their prospects and by the vigor of their leader, defeated the royal forces at Coutras (1587). The Leaguers again accused the king of betraying them. The citizens of Paris rose, the royal guard was disarmed, and Henry barely escaped with his life (May, 1588).

14. Assassination of the King.—The League was now in control, and the king acceded to their demands only to gain time. Fearful of their power, he had the Duke of Guise assassinated, together with his brother, the cardinal (December, 1588). The League swore vengeance against the murderer, and Henry made an alliance with Henry of Navarre. The princes marched upon Paris. During the siege the king was stabbed by Jacques Clément, a Dominican monk and fanatic. He named Henry of Navarre his successor (August 2, 1589).

What followed? 13. What objections were there to Henry of Navarre succeeding? How did Guise act? Sketch the course of events. 14. What course did the king take? What befell him?

SECTION IV. Henry IV. (1589-1610).

15. Civil War continues.—The League nominated Cardinal Bourbon under the title of Charles X. Henry, deserted by the Catholic nobles, was compelled to withdraw from Paris. Closely pursued by the Duke of Mayenne, he defeated him near Arques. Returning to Paris, he seized the suburbs, but his forces were insufficient to carry the city. Again retreating, he withdrew to Tours (1589). In the following year a victory over Mayenne at Ivry left the road open to Paris. Henry blockaded the city for four months and reduced it to the verge of extremity, when the approach of Alexander Farnese with an army of auxiliaries sent from the Netherlands by Philip of Spain compelled him to retreat (1590). He then besieged Rouen, which offered as stout a resistance as Paris. Parma hastening to its aid, Henry attacked him near Amale, but was defeated, and narrowly escaped (1592).

16. Henry abjures Protestantism.—All France was weary of the protracted struggle, and the Leaguers grew suspicious of Philip's designs. The States-General were convoked at Paris by Mayenne to elect a Catholic king. The Spanish ambassador, in the name of his sovereign, claimed the throne for the infanta of Spain, a granddaughter of Henry II. Thereupon Henry took the final step and abjured Protestantism at St. Denis (July, 1593). He was crowned at Chartres in the following February, and in March Paris opened its gates to the king.

17. Edict of Nantes (1598).—Philip urged the League to hold out, and Mayenne held Burgundy. The Spaniards were defeated at Fontaine-Française (1595), and Mayenne submitted in 1596. The Spaniards held Picardy, but Henry took Amiens (1597) and in the following year

15. What followed on the death of Henry III.? Sketch the struggle between Henry of Navarre and the League. 16. How did the States-General act? How did Henry gain the crown? 17. What course did Philip of Spain take?

made himself master of Brittany. All France being now in his hands, the war with Spain was ended by the treaty of Vervins, where the Spaniards surrendered their conquests (1598). He pacified the Huguenots by the Edict of Nantes (April 13, 1598), which granted them all civil and political rights.

18. Death of the King.—Henry now set about restoring order in the distracted kingdom. He encouraged trade, commerce, agriculture, home industries, and foreign enterprise. He checked conspiracy with a severe hand, reorganized the army, constructed fortresses, and improved the navy. Having in a measure healed the wounds of the nation, he again took up the schemes of foreign ambition and aimed at the destruction of the house of Hapsburg. When about to take command of his army in the north he was stabbed by a fanatic named Ravallac (May 14, 1610).

CHAPTER IV.

PHILIP II. AND ELIZABETH.

IN the latter half of the sixteenth century the struggle for the political supremacy in Europe of the Catholic and Protestant powers had for leaders Philip of Spain on the one side and Elizabeth of England on the other.

SECTION I. Philip II. (1556-1598).

1. Conquest of Portugal.—Philip, on his accession to the throne of Spain, was the most powerful monarch in Europe. In addition to the possessions to which he succeeded he acquired the kingdom of Portugal. Sebastian succeeded his grandfather, John III., on the throne of that

Describe the treaty of Vervins. What was the Edict of Nantes? 18. What reforms did Henry institute? How did he die? Who were rivals for European supremacy?

kingdom in 1557. Full of warlike ardor, he was tempted into an expedition to Morocco, where, despite his bravery, he lost his army, the flower of his nobility, and his own life. Left dead on the field of battle, a number of pretenders arose to claim the throne, and Portugal, given over to anarchy, came easily under the influence of its powerful neighbor. Philip sent the Duke of Alva to occupy the kingdom (1580), which remained in Spanish hands for sixty years.

2. Siege of Malta (1565).—Philip, who took upon himself the championship of Christendom, resolved on breaking the power of the Turks. In trying to win Tripoli from Soliman his fleet was utterly defeated (1560). Soliman now undertook to drive the Knights of St. John from Malta, and made extraordinary preparations for the expedition. The appeals for aid of La Valette, the grand master, were unheeded among the contentions of the Christian princes, and the knights were left to their own resources. A force of about nine thousand men defended the island against an army of thirty thousand and a fleet of two hundred sail. The siege lasted from May to September (1565), the defence being one of the most heroic in history. When succor came to the besieged their number had dwindled down to six hundred men, while the Turks, after losing the flower of their army, were compelled to retreat.

3. Death of Soliman (1566).—To avenge his defeat Soliman invaded Hungary, but was detained two months before Szigeth by a garrison of three thousand men under Count Zrinyi, the ban of Croatia. So great were the Turkish losses that Soliman died of a fit of apoplexy brought on by rage. The fortress was finally taken, the garrison falling sword in hand; but it cost the Turks

1. Tell of the expedition of Sebastian of Portugal. What followed from his death? 2. What reverse did Philip meet? Describe the siege of Malta. 3. Tell of Soliman's invasion of Hungary and the siege of Szigeth.

twenty thousand men. Soliman left an empire to his son, Selim II., extending from Algeria to the Euphrates and from the Adriatic to the Black Sea.

4. Selim II.; Battle of Lepanto.—Selim inherited his father's policy and hatred of the Christians, but not his father's capacity. He wrested Tunis from Spain and Cyprus from Venice. The fall of Cyprus was attended by such barbarities as to arouse Europe. Pope Pius V. preached a crusade. A formidable fleet was equipped by Spain and Venice, and the command given by Philip to his half-brother, Don John of Austria. The rival fleets met in the Gulf of Lepanto, the Turks being superior in point of number. After a desperate conflict the Christian arms prevailed and the naval power of the Turks received a fatal blow (October 7, 1571). Thirty thousand Turks, together with their admiral and chief officers, perished. Twenty thousand Christian captives were released, and an immense booty fell into the hands of the conquerors.

5. Philip's Policy in the Netherlands.—Meanwhile the Netherlands were proving a thorn in Philip's side. Protestantism prevailed there to some extent, and Philip resolved on extirpating it. But apart from this his rule was extremely harsh and arbitrary, and the chief nobles, some of them Catholics, began to fall from him. They formed a league called the "Compromise of Breda," for the suppression of the Inquisition and the revocation of all edicts against heretics.

6. The "Beggars."—One of the regent Margaret's counsellors contemptuously alluded to the petition addressed to her as coming from a set of beggars and unworthy attention. The appellation was at once accepted as a badge of distinction, and the patriotic party dubbed themselves

4. Who succeeded Soliman? Tell of Selim's conquests. Describe the battle of Lepanto. 5. What of the Netherlands and the Compromise of Breda? 6. Who were the "Beggars"?

“Beggars” (*gueux*). A revolt broke out and the Duke of Alva was sent to restore order (1567).

7. Alva in the Netherlands.—Alva entered the province at the head of an army of veterans. He pursued the “Beggars” with extreme severity. The chief nobles were taken and beheaded. Numbers perished on the scaffold as well as in battle. The popular party held out bravely under William, Prince of Orange. Alva displayed as consummate generalship in the field as he did lack of policy in the cabinet. He compelled William to quit the country without even giving him the chance of a battle. He proceeded to grind down the people with impossible taxes, which became so odious that at last all trade stopped in the provinces. Universal revolt ensued, and the people obtained some signal successes (1572). The Prince of Orange returned, but the news of the massacre of St. Bartholomew terrified his followers and he had to retire to Holland. Alva at length asked to be recalled (November 17, 1573).

8. The Confederation of Utrecht (1579).—Alva had various successors, among them Don John of Austria, who died there of fever, or poison, as some supposed (October 1, 1578). But all the efforts of Spain to subdue the revolted provinces proved unavailing. William was given almost supreme control in Holland. At Ghent the States-General met in October, 1576, and formed a league against Spain while proclaiming freedom of worship to all denominations. Don John defeated them near Gembloux (1578), but died soon after, and was succeeded by his nephew, Alexander Farnese. Alexander won over the Catholic or Walloon provinces from William. Meanwhile seven of the states had joined in a confederation for mutual alliance and

7. Who was sent to the Netherlands? How did Alva act? Who was the popular leader? Describe events. 8. What followed Alva's recall? What was the Confederation of Utrecht?

defence at Utrecht (January, 1579). This was the foundation of the Dutch Republic. On July 26, 1581, the United Provinces, assembled at the Hague, proclaimed their independence, offering the sovereignty to the Duke of Anjou, brother of the King of France, William retaining the governorship of Holland and Zealand. Anjou was expelled in 1582, and William assassinated in 1584. After a prolonged struggle the independence of Holland was recognized at the treaty of Westphalia (1648).

9. The Spanish Armada.—Elizabeth of England gave constant aid to the revolted provinces, while her vessels scoured the seas after Spanish merchantmen and wrought great havoc to Spanish commerce. To avenge himself, and nominally to avenge the execution of Mary, Queen of Scots, Philip fitted out an enormous fleet, to which he gave the name of the “Invincible Armada,” under the command of the Duke de Medina-Sidonia. The Armada was to have joined a squadron from the Netherlands under Alexander Farnese and proceed to the invasion of England. After being greatly damaged by storms the fleet was attacked by Lord Howard, whose superior seamanship enabled him to inflict severe loss on the Spaniards with but little damage to himself. Storms did the rest, and only a shattered fragment of the “Invincible Armada” ever reached Spain (1588).

10. War with France.—The jealousy between Philip and Henry IV. continued, and resulted in a war in 1595, which was not advantageous to Philip and was ended at the peace of Vervins (1598). In the same year Philip died in the magnificent palace of the Escorial, which he had built for himself.

Where was the foundation of the Dutch Republic laid? Sketch progress of events. When was Holland's independence recognized? 9. How did Queen Elizabeth act? What did Philip do? Tell of the Armada. 10. What of the war between Philip and Henry IV.?

SECTION II. Elizabeth (1558-1603).

11. Protestantism re-established.—Elizabeth, who during the reign of Mary had professed and practised Catholicity, threw off the mask as soon as she ascended the throne. She recalled the Protestant councillors whom Mary had dismissed. She was an illegitimate child, and had been so pronounced by Rome. She had also been declared illegitimate by the English Parliament, with the sanction of her father, after the execution of Anne Boleyn. The act declaring her illegitimacy was never repealed, although her right of succession was restored previous to a proposed marriage between her and Philip of Spain. After the death of Edward VI. the Protestant party in England centred their hopes on Elizabeth.

12. The Catholic party looked to Mary Stuart, widow of Francis II., who, in view of Elizabeth's illegitimacy, was nearest heir to the throne. Her claim was confirmed by Pope Paul IV. Doubtless these facts greatly influenced Elizabeth in her adherence to Protestantism and in the cruel persecution of her unfortunate kinswoman.

13. Persecution of the Catholics.—Elizabeth hastened to proclaim herself supreme head of the Church, and the statutes passed for the revival of the Catholic faith were repealed. The bishops, with the exception of the Bishop of Llandaff, having refused to take the oath of supremacy, were dismissed, and most of them died in prison. The queen created a hierarchy of her own under Matthew Parker, formerly a chaplain of Anne Boleyn, and set him over the see of Canterbury. From this succession proceed the orders of the Anglican Church.

14. The Established Church.—By the act of uniformity (1558) the *Book of Common Prayer* was restored. The

11-12. How was Protestantism re-established in England? What was the question between Elizabeth, Rome, and Mary Stuart? 13. What did Elizabeth proclaim herself? How did the bishops act? How came Anglican orders?

Forty-two Articles of Edward VI.'s reign were condensed into Thirty-nine (1563), which have since remained the embodiment of the doctrine of the Anglican Church. To celebrate Mass was punished as an act of high treason. Thus for the fourth time within twenty-eight years was the established religion of England changed.

SECTION III. Mary Stuart.

15. Mary returns to Scotland.—After the death of her husband Mary Stuart resolved on returning to her own kingdom of Scotland. She applied for a safe-conduct through England, but it was refused by Elizabeth. English cruisers were sent to intercept her, but she escaped them and landed at Leith (August 19, 1561). She found the Protestant party in the ascendant.

16. Troubles with the Nobles.—John Knox, Calvin's disciple, had already introduced Presbyterianism, which was made the established religion of Scotland (1560). Mary asked for toleration, which was barely granted. Her chief advisers were her half-brother, the Earl of Murray, the Earl of Morton, and Maitland of Lethington, all of whom were in the pay of Elizabeth, and Murray secretly aspiring to the crown.

17. Marriage with Darnley.—Contrary to the wish of Elizabeth, Mary married Lord Darnley (July 29, 1565), a near relative of both queens. Murray rebelled, but had to fly. Conspiracy centred around Mary, and Darnley made himself the tool of the conspirators. He was implicated in the murder of Rizzio, the secretary of the queen (1566). Mary was made prisoner, but effected her escape and received Murray back into favor. On June

14. How came the Thirty-nine Articles? How many changes of religion had England experienced within twenty-eight years? 15. What of Mary Stuart's return to Scotland? 16. Tell of Mary's troubles. 17. Whom did Mary marry?

19, 1566, a son was born to her, who afterwards became King of England and Scotland.

18. Bothwell and Mary.—The birth of this child caused disturbance in England, where Elizabeth refused to wed, and where there was much alarm at the prospect of a Catholic heir to the English crown. Elizabeth and her ministers fomented the Scottish strife. The Earl of Bothwell, a bold and ambitious man, now forced his way into Mary's favor. A plot for the destruction of Darnley, in which all the Scotch leaders were implicated, was concocted and carried into effect on the night of February 9, 1567. Two months later Bothwell seized the person of the queen and forcibly carried her off. She was compelled to marry him (May 15). This forced marriage gave countenance to a rumor that implicated Mary in the murder of Darnley and in a criminal passion for Bothwell. Neither rumor had foundation.

19. Mary flies to England.—The conspirators next turned against Bothwell, who had proved the most successful of the band. Edinburgh was seized, and Mary, deserted by her troops, compelled to surrender at Carberry Hill (June 15). Bothwell fled never to return. Mary was imprisoned in Loch Leven Castle and forced to abdicate (July 24) in favor of her infant son, Murray being appointed regent. She escaped (May 2, 1568). Followers flocked to her, but she was finally defeated by Murray at Langside (May 13). She then fled for refuge to Elizabeth.

20. Mary and Elizabeth.—Mary's refuge proved a prison. Elizabeth and her ministers affected to believe the charges made against Mary by the conspirators. She asked to be allowed to leave the kingdom, but her request was refused. A mock examination, most unfair in its conduct to the

The result? 18. Why was the English court alarmed? What of Bothwell, Darnley, and Mary? 19. What occurred at Carberry Hill, Loch Leven, and Langside? What course did Mary take? 20. How was Mary received in England?

injured queen, took place, but nothing could be proved against her. A non-committal sentence was pronounced on both sides. Mary, however, was not released, but her chief accuser, Murray, was sent back to Scotland loaded with marks of Elizabeth's favor.

21. The Babbington Conspiracy.—The destruction of the Scotch queen was determined on by Elizabeth's ministers with Elizabeth's connivance. The chief purpose, doubtless, was to secure the Protestant succession in England. Various plots for Mary's release were set on foot in England. The treatment of her jailers became extremely harsh and cruel. The imprisoned queen had a perfect right to attempt her escape. In 1585 Parliament passed a law involving in high treason not only those who might "compass matters tending to the death" of the Queen of England, but those for whose benefit such matters might be intended. Next year arose the Babbington conspiracy, which Cecil used to serve his purpose. The conspiracy, concocted by a foolish lad, had for object the assassination of Elizabeth and liberation of Mary.

22. Execution of the Queen of Scots (1587).—Mary was tried on this charge. She acknowledged attempting to escape, but denied strenuously attempting or compassing in any way the death of the Queen of England. Nor could the charge be proved against her. For two months Elizabeth hesitated signing the death-warrant, hoping that her victim might meet her death in some other way. She even urged Sir Amias Poulet to rid her of her prisoner. Poulet, harsh as he was, refused; the sentence was at last signed, and Mary Stuart was executed at Fotheringay (February 8, 1587), after a captivity of nearly nineteen years.

21. Describe the plot against Mary's life. What law was passed to condemn her? Tell of the Babbington conspiracy. 22. Describe Mary Stuart's last trial. Where and when was she executed?

23. This murder shocked all Europe, which might, had it the will, have prevented it. Mary's son James talked much of avenging his mother, but a rich present and the promise of the English crown easily appeased him. Philip of Spain used the death as an additional pretext for fitting out the Armada, whose fate we have seen.

24. Renewed Persecution; Death of Elizabeth.—The expedition of the Armada gave Elizabeth and her ministers a new excuse for persecuting the Catholics, although the Catholics, in the hour of the nation's peril, had gathered gallantly to the national defence. Several executions took place, and many fines, imprisonments, and confiscations. These continued down to Elizabeth's death. Nor was the rising Protestant sect of Puritans wholly spared. The queen mixed herself up with all the troubles in Europe. Philip of Spain and she were steadfast foes to the last. Her fleets beat his at sea and reaped a rich booty, while she attained a partial success on land. Cadiz was taken by the English in 1596. All through her reign she was much under the influence of favorites, but had the sagacity to retain her able though unscrupulous ministers, whose policy lifted England into the position of one of the leading powers of Europe. Her court was brilliant though dissolute, and great names in literature illustrate her age. She died miserably, March 24, 1603, having designated James of Scotland as her successor.

23. How was the news of Mary Stuart's execution received in Europe? 24. What resulted from the Armada expedition? What of England and Spain? What of Elizabeth and her statesmen? For what is her reign illustrious?

CHAPTER V.

LOUIS XIII. (1610-1643)—THIRTY YEARS' WAR.

SECTION I. Concini, De Luynes, and Richelieu.

1. **Concini.**—Louis XIII. succeeded his father at the age of nine. His mother, Maria de' Medici, became regent, and called Concini, an Italian of her suite, into favor. He was made prime minister, to the great dissatisfaction of the French. The administration of Concini was very distasteful to the nobles about the court. Condé rose in arms and compelled Concini to yield to all his demands. Condé's arrogance led to his imprisonment in the Bastile. But the king himself was weary of Concini, who was assassinated with Louis' connivance (1617).

2. **Richelieu.**—De Luynes, who was the chief instrument in this murder, was called by the king to the chief power. Maria de' Medici was exiled to Blois. Her almoner, Richelieu, Bishop of Luçon, who had left the career of arms for that of the Church, accompanied her. He succeeded in effecting a reconciliation between the mother and son (1620), was himself recalled to court, and married his niece to the nephew of De Luynes. He was made cardinal and a member of the council of state. De Luynes dying in 1621, Richelieu soon succeeded him as premier.

SECTION II. Ministry of Richelieu (1624-1642).

3. **Policy of Richelieu.**—Richelieu had a triple policy : 1. The complete extinction of feudalism and subjection of the nobles to the royal authority ; 2. The subjection of the French Calvinists ; 3. The elevation of France at the expense of the house of Austria. In carrying out this

1. Whom did Maria de' Medici appoint prime minister ? What was the result ? What befell Concini ? 2. Who was now called to power ? What of Richelieu ? Who succeeded De Luynes ? 3. Describe Richelieu's policy.

policy and governing the realm he had to contend not only against foreign foes but also against domestic intrigue.

4. Richelieu and the Huguenots.—To make France a unit he began with the Huguenots. These were aided by the English. In a short time Richelieu had confined them to La Rochelle, their great stronghold, which he besieged. The English fleet, under Buckingham, was defeated. The defence of the city was most obstinate, but it finally had to succumb (October 28, 1628). The capture of La Rochelle was a death-blow to French Protestantism as a political power. Richelieu treated the rebels mildly and granted them freedom of worship (1629).

5. Intrigues against Richelieu.—Over the Austrian policy Richelieu and Maria de' Medici quarrelled, and their former friendship became a rooted hatred. She joined the intrigues against the minister and nearly overwhelmed him, when Richelieu's own courage and address won the day with the king (1630). Some of Richelieu's enemies were executed, others imprisoned. Gaston of Orleans fled to Brussels, where he kept up his intrigues. Maria de' Medici was exiled from France (1631). Orleans, with Spanish aid, entered France and joined his forces with those of Marshal Montmorency. They were defeated at Castelnaudary, and Montmorency was taken and executed (1632). Orleans again escaped; but his ally, the Duke of Lorraine, lost his duchy. Other intrigues were crushed in like manner.

6. Richelieu's Foreign Policy.—To humble Austria Richelieu leagued with the English, Danes, and Lutheran princes of Germany. He furnished money to Gustavus Adolphus. After the capture of La Rochelle he sent an army into

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4. What of Richelieu and the Huguenots? Describe the siege of La Rochelle.
 5. Who intrigued against Richelieu? What happened at Castelnaudary?
 6. With whom and against whom did Richelieu ally?

Italy to protect the Duke de Nevers in possession of the duchy of Mantua and marquisate of Montferrat against the Duke of Savoy. Savoy was soon lost and part of Piedmont, and the French were only got rid of by ceding to them the defiles of the Alps and the city of Pinerolo (1630). Austria was compelled to acknowledge Nevers as Duke of Mantua.

SECTION III. The Thirty Years' War (1618-1648).

7. Origin of the War.—The Thirty Years' War in Germany grew out of the troubles of the Reformation. By the treaty of Augsburg each state was allowed the privilege of prescribing its own form of worship, the inhabitants, Protestant or Catholic, being at liberty to emigrate to where their religion was protected. The Protestants retained the ecclesiastical possessions they had seized on previous to the peace of Passau (1552). To guard against further appropriations the Catholics introduced an "Ecclesiastical Reservation" clause, which provided that all prelates who in the future should leave the Church should surrender their benefices. Notwithstanding all agreements and treaties there were constant religious contentions. In fact, religion at this time entered so largely into politics that the one became indistinguishable from the other. The Lutherans and Calvinists fought against each other, while both united against the Catholics.

8. The "Evangelical Union" and "Catholic League" in Germany.—Rudolph II. (1576-1612), who succeeded his father, the Emperor Maximilian, was not the man for the hour, and the ecclesiastical quarrels broke out with new bitterness. The Protestants formed an "Evangelical Union" for mutual assistance and protection (1608). This

Describe the French campaign in Italy. 7. What grew out of the Protestant Reformation in Germany? What was the "Ecclesiastical Reservation" clause? 8. What were the "Evangelical Union" and the "Catholic League"?

was followed by the "Catholic Lëague," headed by Maximilian, Duke of Bavaria (1609).

9. Troubles in the Empire.—Meanwhile Rudolph was drawn into disputes with his brother Matthias, whom he had set over Austria. Matthias quelled a revolt among the Hungarians, who had invited Bocskay of Transylvania and the Turks to aid them against the house of Hapsburg (1606). Matthias, afterwards uniting with these, forced Rudolph to cede Hungary, Moravia, and Austria to him, and promise him the succession in Bohemia (1608). A further dispute led to the cession of Bohemia, Silesia, and Lusatia, with guarantee of religious freedom to the Bohemian Protestants. Rudolph dying without issue, Matthias was chosen to succeed him (June, 1612) on the throne of an empire rent by dissensions.

10. Revolt of Bohemia.—Matthias could only stop the advance of the Turks on Vienna by suing for peace (1615). The example of revolt which he himself had given was not lost. He issued a proclamation against both the Catholic and Protestant leagues. His proclamation was disregarded (1617). He ceded the crown of Bohemia to his cousin Ferdinand, grandson of Ferdinand I., and had him elected King of the Romans, with right of succession in Hungary (1617). The Bohemians revolted under Count Thurn, and the revolt was joined by the whole Evangelical Union.

11. Ferdinand II. (1619-1637).—The greater part of Bohemia was soon in the hands of the Protestants, and Ferdinand was besieged in Vienna, when Matthias died (March, 1619). Ferdinand held out until relieved, and then, repairing to Frankfort, claimed the imperial crown. The Catholic electors voting for him, he was crowned emperor. The states of Bohemia offered the crown to

9. What troubles arose in Germany? What cessions were wrung from Rudolph? Who succeeded Rudolph? 10. How did Matthias' reign open? What happened in Bohemia? 11. How did Ferdinand come to the throne?

Frederick V., elector palatine and head of the Evangelical Union. Hungary, Bohemia, and Transylvania joined against Ferdinand.

12. Ferdinand's Triumph; Tilly.—Against them Ferdinand sent the forces of the Catholic League under Maximilian and Count Tilly. Upper Austria was subdued. John George, the Protestant Elector of Saxony, declared against Frederick and overran Lusatia, while the Spaniards, under Spinola, entered the Lower Palatinate. Tilly advanced to Prague and cut to pieces the army of the “Winter King,” as Frederick was called for his brief reign (1620). The Catholic worship was re-established. Frederick was declared to have forfeited the electoral dignity and the Upper Palatinate, which were conferred on Maximilian. The Protestant Union was dissolved.

13. Ernest, Count of Mansfeld, still held out, aided by George Frederick, Margrave of Baden-Durlach, and Christian of Brunswick. These men were rather military adventurers than upholders of a great cause. Tilly marched against them, beat them, and drove them from the Palatinate. Bethlen Gábor of Transylvania concluded peace in 1624, and the Catholic party was triumphant.

14. Wallenstein; Peace of Lübeck (1629).—The enmity of France and the subsidies of England soon rekindled the flames of revolt. Richelieu supplied Ernest of Mansfeld with funds and played upon the ambition of Christian IV., King of Denmark, a kinsman of the defeated Frederick, whose father-in-law was James I. of England. In 1625 the states of Lower Saxony were up in arms, and Christian of Denmark, Christian of Brunswick, and Mansfeld were in the field. The imperial treasury was exhausted, but Count Wallenstein offered of his own means to

By what states was the succession disputed? 12. Who was Ferdinand's commander? Describe the progress of events. 13. Whom did Tilly next subdue? 14. What caused the new outbreak?

raise and equip an army of twenty thousand men. His offer was accepted and he was made generalissimo. He met Mansfeld at Dessau (April, 1626), destroyed his army, and pursued him into Hungary. In August Tilly crushed Christian of Denmark at Lutter. Tilly being wounded, Wallenstein followed them up, and, driving the Danes into Jutland and onwards, occupied Mecklenburg and Pomerania, and was only stopped at the walls of Stralsund (1628). Christian IV. hastened to sign the peace of Lübeck, by which he recovered his provinces on condition of deserting his allies and ceasing to meddle with German affairs (1629).

15. Wallenstein dismissed.—The Protestants were again subdued, and Ferdinand decreed that they should restore all the endowments they had seized contrary to the “Ecclesiastical Reservation” of 1555. Wallenstein was entrusted with the execution of the edict. He allowed his soldiers to commit the most revolting excesses, and both Catholics and Protestants felt the grievance of his exactions. His enemies were numerous and powerful, and Richelieu was for ever intriguing. Ferdinand, anxious to have his son declared King of the Romans, assembled the diet at Ratisbon (1630). One of the conditions of acceding to his wishes was the dismissal of Wallenstein. This was done, whereupon the electors proceeded to break their word to the emperor.

SECTION IV. The Swedish Period (1630-1635).

16. Gustavus Adolphus.—Richelieu now brought Gustavus Adolphus, King of Sweden, into the field. Gustavus was son of Charles IX., successor of Gustavus Vasa, to the

How came Wallenstein on the scene? Describe the ensuing campaign. How did it close? 15. What trust was given to Wallenstein? How did he use it? Why was he dismissed?

exclusion of the Catholic Sigismund, King of Poland, who was the lawful heir. He was a man of extraordinary activity and military genius, and had mastered Denmark, Poland, and the Czar of Russia, when called to take part in the German conflict.

17. Gustavus in Germany.—Leaving his kingdom in the charge of the Chancellor Oxenstiern, Gustavus landed at the mouth of the Oder with twenty thousand men (June 24, 1630). Within a month he occupied Pomerania, which he followed up by the occupation of Mecklenburg. Within eight months he captured eighty fortified places.

18. Gustavus defeats Tilly.—Tilly commanded the imperial forces and was investing Magdeburg, which Gustavus hastened to relieve. Before he could reach it the city was stormed and sacked. The Elector of Saxony joined Gustavus (September, 1631), and the two advanced against Tilly. Novel tactics and youthful impetuosity proved too much for the veteran general. He was defeated for the first time at Breitenfeld, near Leipsic (September 7, 1631). This great victory roused the courage of the Protestants, who at once rose to their new leader.

19. Victories of Gustavus.—The Elector of Saxony entered Bohemia. Gustavus, marching into Franconia and the Palatinate, again defeated Tilly at Würzburg. He wintered at Mentz. Ferdinand recalled Wallenstein; but Gustavus opened the spring campaign (April, 1632) by striking the Austrians at Lech, near Augsburg, where Tilly received his last defeat and death-wound. Munich fell, Bavaria was in their hands, and the elector fled for refuge to Ratisbon. The Protestant peasants of Upper Austria rose, and the Swedes were victorious as far as Lake Constance and the Tyrolese mountains.

16. Who was Gustavus Adolphus? 17. Describe Gustavus' early exploits. 18. Tell of the meeting between Tilly and Gustavus. 19. What further victories did Gustavus win? What befell Tilly?

20. Death of Gustavus Adolphus (1632); Wallenstein recalled.—And now came Wallenstein on the scene at the head of forty thousand men. He drove the Saxons from Bohemia, entered Prague, effected a junction with the Elector of Bavaria, and advanced against Gustavus, who was entrenched near Nuremberg. Gustavus was compelled to retire. Wallenstein was ravaging Upper Saxony, and on November 5, 1632, the two armies faced each other at Lutzen. A desperate battle ensued the next day. Gustavus fell mortally wounded, but the Swedes avenged his death by a signal victory.

21. Death of Wallenstein.—The death of Gustavus was regarded as a calamity by the Protestants. Wallenstein did not pursue his advantage, but wasted time in negotiations and political intrigue. Oxenstiern carried on the war on the part of the Protestants (1633). Wallenstein's inactivity led to suspicions of his loyalty, and he was secretly deprived of his command in favor of the emperor's son, Ferdinand; but, fearful of his power, he was assassinated by Captain Devereux, an officer of Butler's Irish Dragoons in the service of Austria (February 25, 1634).

22. Treaty of Prague (1635).—The emperor's son, Ferdinand, assisted by Gallas and Piccolomini, assumed command of the imperial forces. A Spanish army under Charles of Lorraine joined them, and on September 6 they inflicted an overwhelming defeat on the Protestant forces under Bernhard of Weimar and Horn at Nördlingen. The Elector of Saxony next deserted the Protestant cause for that of the emperor (1635) at the treaty of Prague, which renewed the Restitution Edict. The other Protestant states followed, and Sweden found herself abandoned, when Richelieu again came to her assistance.

20. Who succeeded Tilly? Describe the battle of Lutzen. 21. How did Wallenstein now act? What befell Wallenstein? 22. What happened at Nördlingen? Tell of the treaty of Prague.

SECTION V. The French Period under Louis XIII. (1635-1643).

23. War between Spain and France.—Renewing his alliance with Sweden, Richelieu declared war against Spain. The French gained a brilliant victory at Wittstock over John George and Hatzfeldt (September 24, 1636), and advanced into the Austrian territory. But the Spaniards invaded Picardy, and the allied forces carried victory almost to the gates of Paris, capturing Corbie. Richelieu alone stood firm and restored the courage of the French. Corbie was retaken and the enemy compelled to retreat.

24. Victories of the French.—The emperor died in 1637 and was succeeded by his son, Ferdinand III. The war continued, and in February, 1638, Bernhard of Saxe-Weimar, who had entered the French service, gained a great victory over the imperialists at Rheinfelden. In December he took the strong fortress of Breisach and became master of Alsace. He died suddenly in 1639, and the French took command of his army.

25. Death of Richelieu.—Arras fell next, which led to the conquest of the province of Artois (1640). Other victories followed in quick succession, and Perpignan opened its gates to the French as Richelieu lay on his death-bed (1642). He left the direction of affairs to Mazarin, his confidant. He was a statesman rather than a churchman, and was willing to sacrifice religion to what he considered the glory of France. He was soon followed to the grave by Louis, who left the crown to his son, a boy of five (1643).

23. What new war did Richelieu undertake? How did the war progress? 24. What ally did the French gain? Tell of Bernhard's successes. 25. Describe the death of Richelieu. What was his character?

THIRD EPOCH.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF LOUIS XIV. TO HIS DEATH (1643-1715).

THIS epoch, called the age of Louis XIV., is divided into three periods: the ministry of Mazarin; the first wars and conquests of Louis up to 1688; the final surrender of many of these conquests. Sweden loses its preponderance in northern Europe, and Austria triumphs over Turkey. A revolution occurs in England, where a commonwealth supplants royalty for a time.

CHAPTER I.

LOUIS XIV. AND MAZARIN (1643-1661).

MAZARIN brings the Thirty Years' War to an end, triumphs over the Fronde, and imposes on Spain the treaty of the Pyrenees.

SECTION I. Regency of Anne of Austria (1643-1651).

1. Mazarin.—Louis' mother, Anne of Austria, was made regent, and chose Cardinal Mazarin for her prime minister. The nobles resented this appointment and formed a strong party against Mazarin, headed by the Duke de Beaufort, grandson of Henry IV. Failing to oust Mazarin, they attempted to assassinate him. Their plot being discovered, Beaufort and the leading members of his cabal were banished from court.

2. Condé and Turenne; Close of the Thirty Years' War (1648).—Meanwhile the war with Spain and Germany was

What does the age of Louis XIV. embrace? 1. Who was regent for Louis? Who was prime minister? How was Mazarin's appointment received? What plot was formed against him?

continued. The Spaniards invaded Champagne, but were beaten by the young Duke d'Enghien, afterwards Condé, at Rocroy (1643). He followed up his victory by taking Thionville, and, marching into Germany, defeated Mercy, the imperialist general, in a three days' battle near Freiburg (1644). Later on he was joined by Turenne, and together they gained another great victory over Mercy at Nördlingen, where Mercy fell (1645). A final victory of Condé's at Lens led to the peace of Westphalia and the close of the Thirty Years' War (1648). By this treaty Holland and Switzerland were declared independent of the empire. France gained Alsace, Toul, Metz, and Verdun. Sweden was given Pomerania west of the Oder. There were various other provisions, but the crowning work of the treaty was the establishment of religious equality among the various creeds.

SECTION II. The Fronde (1648-1652); Treaty of the Pyrenees (1659).

3. Civil War.—Mazarin's enemies were still active. He had exhausted the treasury in prosecuting the war, and to raise money levied new imposts on Paris. This was the signal for an outbreak that developed into the "War of the Fronde" (1648). The Parliament of Paris sided with the people against the court. The regent and Mazarin were compelled to fly to St. Germain. Mazarin was proscribed, troops were levied, and Paris put in a state of defence. Condé came to the rescue of the court, peace was concluded, and a general amnesty proclaimed (1649).

4. Defeat of the Fronde.—Condé now assumed so arrogant a tone that the cardinal threw him into prison with some of his abettors (1650). This caused another outbreak in Paris. Condé and his companions were released and

2. Describe Condé's exploits. What led to the peace of Westphalia? What were the terms of the treaty? 3. What was the war of the Fronde? By whom was peace restored? 4. What caused the new outbreak?

Mazarin fled to Germany (1651). Condé's triumph was short. He set himself at the head of the Frondeurs; but Marshal Turenne, who had abandoned their cause for that of his sovereign, was opposed to him. He beat him near Bléneau (April, 1652), and, following him up to Paris, beat him again at the Faubourg Saint-Antoine.

5. Triumph of the King.—Meanwhile the king, still only thirteen, had declared himself of age (1651) and assumed royal authority. He established his court at Poitiers, and thither went Mazarin at the head of six thousand men. His arrival caused new commotion in Paris, which had opened its gates to Condé. But all were weary of the struggle, and in spite of Condé peace was made with the queen, Mazarin, to appease the Parisians, tendering his resignation and withdrawing from the court. The king entered Paris in triumph, and Condé fled for refuge to his old foes in the Spanish Netherlands (1652).

6. Treaty of the Pyrenees (1659).—Louis proscribed Condé, who at the head of a Spanish force had invaded the north of France. He was beaten by Turenne at Arras (1654), and decisively at Dunkirk (June 14, 1658). This victory led to the treaty of the Pyrenees, which brought to a close the war with Spain and the troubles of the Fronde (1659). Mazarin negotiated the treaty, which proved his crowning triumph. By its terms France acquired the county of Roussillon, the province of Artois, with several cities and territories in Flanders, Hainault, and Luxembourg. Condé was pardoned, and Louis married Maria Theresa, eldest daughter of Philip IV. Mazarin continued to rule the kingdom till his death in 1661. Thenceforth Louis carried on the government in person, without the assistance of a prime minister.

Who came to the rescue of the court and with what result? 5. What action did the king now take? How was peace restored? 6. What of Turenne and Condé? What were the terms of the treaty of the Pyrenees?

SECTION III. England: James I. (1603-1625); Charles I. (1625-1649); the Commonwealth (1649-1660); the Protectorate (1653-1658).

7. James Stuart.—The proclamation by Cecil of the accession of James, son of Mary, Queen of Scots, to the English throne was hailed with acclamation in London. Removed from his mother's care, James had been brought up a Presbyterian. On arriving in England he became an Anglican, maintaining his supremacy in the Church and making the most of his royal authority and prerogatives. A crowd of Scotchmen accompanied him, and to many of these he gave office and preferment. His favoritism in this respect and his meanness in many others disgusted the English.

8. Increase of Royal Authority.—After the Wars of the Roses, which had proved so destructive to the nobles, the power of the crown had greatly increased. Under the Tudors it became a tyranny. But with the destruction of the nobles the people were gradually rising into power. The great cities, with their guilds, became the centres of wealth, and to them monarchs looked for support in their wars and to fill their exchequers.

9. Rise of the Puritans.—The religious disturbances of the preceding reigns had created a restive spirit among the English people. The Protestants split up into sects, and many of these were quite indisposed to accept the newly-established Anglican Church in place of the old. Some of them pressed for a purer church and purer doctrine. These were called Puritans and were Calvinistic in their tenets. James maintained that a hierarchy was the strongest support of the throne; consequently he persecuted the Puritans, as he also did the Catholics.

10. The Gunpowder Plot.—The Catholics had expected

7. How was the accession of James Stuart received in England? Was the king popular? 8. In what relations stood the crown to the people? 9. Describe the spread of religious dissensions in England. Who were the Puritans?

much from the son of Mary, Queen of Scots. They were treated more harshly than under Elizabeth. Driven to desperation, some of their number, under the lead of Robert Catesby, conceived the mad and wicked project of blowing up king, lords, and Commons at the opening of Parliament. The execution was entrusted to Guy Fawkes, a soldier of fortune. The government receiving information, the plot was discovered and the chief conspirators were taken and executed (1605).

11. King James' Bible.—Religious questions, foreign negotiations, and inglorious wars, together with the troubles and follies of the king's favorites, form the chief features of this reign. By royal authority the English version of the Bible known as the King James' was prepared.

12. Charles I. and the Revolution (1625-1649).—Charles, who succeeded his father on the throne, had been brought up with extraordinary ideas of the sacredness and prerogatives of royalty. He was narrow-minded and obstinate, though possessed of some good qualities. His education and disposition led him into conflict with an already provoked Parliament and people.

13. Charles and the Parliament.—To satisfy the Puritans, who were now strong in Parliament, he revived the laws against Catholics. The Puritans were greatly averse to his marriage with a Catholic princess, Henrietta Maria, daughter of Henry IV. of France. Charles met Parliament with a demand for money. To this the Commons replied by drawing up a list of sixteen abuses and demanding the redress of these before making their grants.

14. The Petition of Right (1628).—At every meeting of Parliament the conflict deepened. The king would

10. What occasioned the Gunpowder Plot? Give details of the plot. 11. For what is James' reign remarkable? 12. Describe the character of Charles I. 13. How did Charles' reign open?

concede nothing; the Commons retaliated by refusing money. The grievances of the people were embodied in the "Petition of Right" (1628), which set forth the acts of tyranny that had long been practised, and begged that they should cease. The king resolved on ruling without Parliament. Taxes were levied without its consent, on the mere strength of the royal prerogative. John Hampden, a Buckinghamshire gentleman, brought matters to a test by refusing to pay. He was summoned to trial, and, though judgment was given against him, the heart of the people went with him.

15. Wentworth.—Charles was also troubled with religious difficulties. Laud, Archbishop of Canterbury and the chief spiritual adviser of the king, made himself obnoxious both in England and Scotland to all who disbelieved in the Anglican Church. Buckingham fell by the hand of an assassin. Wentworth, Lord Strafford, succeeded him in the king's favor. An able and resolute man, he deserted the popular cause for that of the king, whom he urged to be "thorough" in all he undertook. Wentworth was impeached and executed.

16. The Scottish League and Covenant.—Through Laud Charles attempted to force the English liturgy on the Scotch people. All Scotland rose against this, and a solemn League and Covenant was formed to maintain the faith and discipline of the Scottish Kirk. Charles resolved on suppressing the Covenant. The Covenanters retorted by abolishing episcopacy and preparing for war. The English Puritans sided with the Scotch. The Parliament, refusing to grant supplies, was dissolved. The Scotch made a successful invasion of England.

17. Charles, finding it impossible to proceed without

14. What was the Petition of Right? What of John Hampden? 15. What of Laud, Buckingham, and Wentworth? 16. Why did the Scotch rise? What was the League and Covenant?

supplies, again summoned Parliament, which again refused grants without redress of grievances. The king impeached the leaders of the opposition on the charge of high treason, and at the head of his guards entered the House of Commons to arrest the offending members. It was a fatal act and led to the outbreak of the civil war which had long been impending.

18. Civil War in England.—On July 12, 1642, Parliament voted to raise an army. On August 22 the royal standard was unfurled at Nottingham Castle. The nobles and gentry for the most part sided with the king, the middle classes and yeomanry with the Parliament. The Royalists were known as “Cavaliers,” the Parliamentarians as “Roundheads” because of their fashion of close-cropped hair. The first important engagement was at the village of Keynton, near Edgehill (October 23). It was indecisive. The early successes of the war were on the side of the Royalists. The Parliamentarians had no general capable of coping with Prince Rupert, the king’s nephew, who was a brilliant cavalry commander, till Fairfax and Cromwell came into prominence.

19. Oliver Cromwell.—Cromwell had been a resolute member of the opposition in Parliament. He was just as resolute in the field. A zealous Puritan, he infused a religious glow into the followers he raised. This imparted a new aspect and bitterness to the contest. Cromwell’s “Ironsides,” his own regiment, raised, drilled, and preached to by himself, came to be regarded as invincible, like their leader. His military capacity soon showed itself to be superior to that of any of the Parliamentary generals.

20. Battle of Marston Moor.—The Parliamentarians

17. How did Charles treat the Parliament? 18. How did Parliament retaliate? How was the country divided? Sketch the early phases of the struggle. 19. What of Oliver Cromwell and his Ironsides?

joined with the Scotch Covenanters against the king. At the battle of Marston Moor (July 2, 1644) they inflicted a severe defeat on the Royalists, the success being chiefly owing to Cromwell's coolness and stubborn courage. Cromwell now came rapidly to the front and took the lead of the party called "Independents" in matters of religion. Their policy was dead against the king.

21. Battle of Naseby; Surrender of the King.—The chief command was given to Fairfax, but the real commander was Cromwell. He and his Ironsides again turned the day at Naseby (June 14, 1645), which virtually ended the war. Charles was hopelessly beaten. Cromwell followed up his victory by a series of rapid blows at every Royalist stronghold. Charles was left without an army in the field. He surrendered himself to the Scots (May 5, 1646), who, after haggling over the price, sold him to the English (January 30, 1647).

22. Execution of Charles I. (1649).—Charles might have retained his throne had he only been open and honest, and conceded the just demands of his people. But no reliance could be placed on his word, and he would concede nothing. Cromwell's army was now the real power in England. He decided that it was an issue of life or death between himself and the king. Charles was arraigned at Westminster (January 20, 1649) before a high court of justice specially organized. The charge against him was that of high treason for levying war against the Parliament and kingdom of England. Sentence of death was passed upon him and he was beheaded (January 30, 1649).

23. The Commonwealth (1649-1660).—Cromwell was now the most powerful man in England. After the execution of the king a Council of State was formed for the trans-

20. Describe the battle of Marston Moor. 21. Who commanded the Parliamentarians? What happened at Naseby? What befell Charles? 22. Describe the trial of Charles I. His sentence?

action of public affairs, Cromwell being one of the members. He was also made lord-lieutenant of Ireland, where the people had risen in defence of Charles. He returned to England after a campaign that was a series of butcheries, and marched against the Scotch, who had set up Charles' son as king. His Scotch campaign was at first unsuccessful, but ended successfully at Worcester (September 3, 1651). There the Scotch, who with the young king had invaded England, were wholly defeated and the royal cause lost for the time being.

24. Cromwell made Protector.—Cromwell's ambition grew with his fortunes. He resolved to rule England at his own pleasure, and aspired to royalty. He dissolved the troublesome Parliament (April 20, 1653). The Council of State was dissolved at the same time. He summoned a sort of parliament in his own interest, famous as the "Barebones" Parliament. At his instigation they had a new constitution published, and himself made Lord Protector, the supreme authority resting in him and the Parliament (December 16, 1653).

25. England under Cromwell.—Henceforth Cromwell ruled, and when Parliament opposed him he dissolved it. England was under a military tyranny. The Protector's foreign policy was strong and successful, and he made England's power felt and respected abroad. By another Parliament summoned for September 17, 1656, it was voted that Cromwell take the title of king. But the opposition of the army and its chief generals was so great that he reluctantly refused. He soon after dissolved this Parliament. The rest of his life was spent in a tangle of plots that wore him out, and he died on September 3, 1658. He was succeeded in the Protectorate by his son Richard, a man

23. Who now became the leader of affairs? Describe Cromwell's campaigns against the Irish and the Scotch. 24. What did the "Barebones" Parliament do? 25. Outline Cromwell's policy. The result? Describe Cromwell's last days.

of very ordinary capacity. The country, weary of tyranny, longed for the return of royalty. This was brought about by General Monk, commander of the army in Scotland. Prince Charles was recalled from exile, and entered London (May, 1660), amid the acclamations of the populace.

CHAPTER II.

FIRST WARS AND CONQUESTS OF LOUIS XIV. (1661-1668).

LOUIS XIV., assisted by able ministers, reforms the administration of France and enters upon great wars of conquest, which begin with success but end in disaster.

SECTION I. Personal Government of Louis XIV.

1. Colbert.—Louis, on assuming personal authority after the death of Mazarin, called able ministers to his assistance. He dismissed Fouquet, who had managed the finances under Mazarin and had been guilty of gross speculation. In his place he set Colbert, a financier of great ability and integrity. Under his administration the internal departments of state were speedily reorganized, and France was soon restored to a condition of general prosperity. Louis took an active interest in European affairs. He began by exacting a formal apology from the King of Spain and another from the pope on questions of etiquette. His success in both astonished Europe.

2. Louis' Home and Foreign Policy.—While reorganizing his army and navy the king encouraged letters and the arts. Great public buildings, harbors, and fortifications were established in his reign, as also monuments of learn-

Who succeeded Cromwell? What led to the recall of Prince Charles? What did Louis XIV. do after the death of Mazarin? Who was selected in place of Fouquet? State the result. What were Louis' first acts in European affairs?

ing and of charity. Reforms were effected in the law and an efficient police established. Charles II. of England was made a pensioner of Louis, and the other European states, distracted by dissensions, offered an inviting field to his ambition. France itself, healed of its divisions, and suddenly become rich and prosperous under the vigorous administration, yielded easily to the absolutism of the king, who was truly enabled to assert, "I am the state."

SECTION II. War of Spoliation (1667).

3. French Successes.—Louis resolved on securing to France the political preponderance acquired by the treaties of Westphalia and the Pyrenees. He purchased Dunkirk from the English (1662) and converted it into a fortress of great strength. He sent troops against the Turks and chased the Algerine and Barbary pirates from the Mediterranean. On the death of Philip IV. of Spain (1665) Louis laid claim to the Spanish Netherlands in behalf of his wife, who was Philip's daughter. He invaded Flanders and speedily made himself master of the country.

4. The Triple Alliance.—Europe was aroused and alarmed. A triple alliance was formed between England, Holland, and Sweden (1668) to compel France and Spain to make peace. Louis responded by invading and taking the province of Franche-Comté. The commissioners of the various powers met at Aix-la-Chapelle, and a treaty was signed (May 2, 1668) which left to France the important territory known thenceforth as French Flanders, Franche-Comté being restored to Spain.

SECTION III. Second War of Spoliation (1672-1678).

5. Invasion of Holland.—Louis attempted by bribery and

2. Give an account of his home policy. Of his foreign policy. What enabled him to assert his absolutism? 3. Describe the successes which led to the Triple Alliance. 4. What was the Triple Alliance? What did it accomplish?

corruption to break up the coalition against him. He succeeded in great measure. Sweden was bought off and some of the German electors. The alliance between England and Holland was broken (1670). Louis then entered Lorraine and occupied it. Charles II. attacked the Dutch fleet and Louis invaded Holland at the head of one hundred thousand men (1672). With such generals as Turenne, Condé, Vauban, and Louvois, the Dutch were easily overcome and sued for peace. The conditions demanded by Louis were so outrageous that the Dutch rose in revolt and slew the Grand Pensionary, De Witt. William, Prince of Orange, was elected Stadtholder. He broke off the negotiations, and, rather than submit, the Dutch opened their dikes and submerged the country from the sea.

6. The Grand Alliance.—Another coalition was formed against the French king under the name of the “Grand Alliance of the Hague” (1673). Germany and Spain joined it, England standing neutral and Sweden joining France. Louis was forced to evacuate Holland, but took Franche-Comté (1674) and left Vauban to guard it. The French armies successfully maintained a struggle against the great coalition. Turenne found a rival in Montecuculi, the Austrian general. After a campaign that left the issue doubtful Turenne forced his adversary into a disadvantageous position near Sasbach, but was killed by a stray ball on the eve of battle (July 27, 1675). His army was compelled to retreat. Montecuculi invaded Alsace, but was stayed by Condé and driven across the Rhine. The Dutch now sued for peace, which was signed by all the allies at Nymwegen (1678-1679). The terms were pretty much as Louis dictated.

7. More French Conquests.—Louis’ ambition would not

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5. How did Louis seek to break the coalition against him? Give the chief events of the second war of spoliation. On what did the Dutch resolve?
6. Give an account of the Grand Alliance. What was the result?

let him rest. He laid preposterous claims to certain German territories, and in 1681 seized the important city and fortress of Strassburg, till then a free city. This led to another war with Germany and Spain, in which Louis gained Luxembourg, which was ceded to him at the treaty of Ratisbon (1684).

SECTION IV. Declaration of 1682 ; Jansenism ; Revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685).

8. Louis and the Church.—Louis assumed to control Church affairs as well as lay. This led him into very grave disputes with the Holy See and wrought trouble to the Church in France. He claimed for the crown the right to enjoy the revenues of vacant sees and to dispose of benefices all over France. The property of the bishops who refused to submit was confiscated, and an assembly of French clergy called to limit the exercise of pontifical authority in France.

9. Gallicanism.—Less than a third of the bishops of France obeyed the royal mandate, the illustrious Bossuet among them. He it was who drew up in four articles the so-called "Declaration of the Clergy of France on Ecclesiastical Power" (1682). The declaration struck at the supremacy and infallible decision in matters of faith and doctrine of the head of the Church. This was the origin of "Gallicanism," which was at once condemned by the pope and by many of the French episcopate. Louis attempted to awe the pope, but failed. It was only when all Europe was leagued against him in his declining years that he retracted, and wrote to the pope that the declaration would no longer be taught or enforced (1693).

10. Jansenism.—Another dispute with the Holy See

7. What led to a new war ? What did Louis gain by it ? 8. In what way did Louis interfere with the affairs of the Church ? 9. What was the origin of Gallicanism ? When did Louis retract ?

arose about the doctrines of Jansenius, Bishop of Ypres, whose work on grace contained the principles of Calvinism, denied the free-will of man and that Christ had died for all men. The doctrines were taken up by Arnauld, the Abbot of St. Cyran, who gained over his sister Angélique, the Abbess of Port Royal. These got about them a number of followers, who, under the name of *solitaires*, lived a retired and ostentatiously mortified life. Their number increased and they had partisans at court. Jansenius' doctrines had also penetrated into the Netherlands, of which he was a native.

11. Failure of Jansenism.—In 1642 the doctrines were condemned by Pope Urban VIII. The *solitaires* of Port Royal were ordered to disperse. A clear form of faith was drawn up with the pope's sanction and proposed to all the priests and nuns of France. Louis XIV. supported the pope. The dispute was renewed at various times and with much bitterness of controversy. The Jansenists gradually lost credit, especially by appeals to pretended miracles, but the sect, down to the Revolution, still remained a disturbing element in the French Church. In Holland a small number of Jansenists steadfastly retained their error down to the present time.

12. Revocation of the Edict of Nantes (1685).—The actions of the Calvinists, who were suspected of leaguings with the enemies of France, induced Louis to revoke the Edict of Nantes (1685). Similar treatment was now meted out to the Protestants in France as to the Catholics in England, Ireland, and other places. The Calvinists resisted, but were put down by force. A large number left the kingdom.

10. What is meant by Jansenism? 11. What action was taken by the pope? State what is said of the failure of Jansenism. 12. What induced Louis to revoke the Edict of Nantes? How were Catholics treated elsewhere?

SECTION V. Revolution of 1688 in England; Charles II. (1660-1685); James II. (1685-1688); William III. (1689-1702).

13. Charles II.—The restoration of royalty was received with rapture by the majority of the English people; but the House of Stuart seemed incapable of learning a lesson from the past. Charles II. degenerated into an easy-going libertine, who cared more for his pleasures than his people, and sold the honor of his country to France by becoming a pensioner of the French king.

14. Struggle for Naval Supremacy.—A struggle for naval supremacy between the English and Dutch took place during this reign, in which Ruyter, the Dutch admiral, and James, Duke of York, were the rivals. Ruyter at one time sailed up the Thames and threatened London. But in the end the advantage lay with the English.

15. Fire and Plague in London.—A dreadful plague decimated London, and was followed by a fire that nearly destroyed the city (1666). During these afflictions the king showed the nobler side of his character and was seconded by his brother. The war which England was carrying on with France and Holland was concluded by the treaty of Breda (1667), by which New Amsterdam (New York) was ceded to the English, Acadia to the French, and the Isle of Palawan, in the East Indies, to the Dutch.

16. The Test Act.—In 1668 the Duke of York became a Catholic. This created alarm in England. The king avowed his belief in Catholicity. A Catholic succession was feared, to prevent which the Test Act was passed (1673). This act required all persons holding office to take the oaths of allegiance and supremacy, receive the English sacrament, and declare against transubstantiation. James refused to take it and resigned all his offices. In

13. How did the restoration affect the policy of the Stuarts? What of Charles?
14. Describe the struggle for naval supremacy. 15. What disasters befell London? What was settled by the Treaty of Breda? 16. What of the Test Act?

1674 William of Orange married Mary, daughter of James, and the leaders in England began to look in that direction for the succession.

17. The Titus Oates Plot.—The public mind was much disturbed, and an impostor named Titus Oates seized the occasion to create an outcry against the Catholics. He pretended to have discovered a terrible conspiracy to kill the king and place James on the throne. The story was believed and Oates thanked and pensioned by Parliament, although he was convicted of falsehood in open court. Bedloe, another villain, improved upon Oates' story, and the public mind was inflamed to such a degree that persecutions of the Catholics broke out and many suffered death. A new test was passed by which Catholicity was declared to be idolatry. Later on the House of Commons passed a bill excluding the Duke of York from the succession. He was banished for life, but shortly returned.

18. The Rye-House Plot.—A conspiracy known as the Rye-House Plot was set on foot to secure the succession either to the Prince of Orange or to the Duke of Monmouth. It was discovered and the leaders executed (1683). Charles died two years later. On his death-bed he received the ministrations of a priest and died in the communion of the Catholic Church with sincere sentiments of piety and sorrow for his sins (February 6, 1685). The Habeas Corpus Act, a great safeguard to the civil liberty of the subject, was passed during this reign.

19. James II. (1685-1688).—James succeeded his brother without any opposition. The Duke of Monmouth landed and claimed the throne. The Earl of Argyle rose in his favor in Scotland. Both were defeated and executed. A commission under the presidency of Judge Jeffreys was

What marriage influenced events? 17. Give an account of the Titus Oates Plot. 18. Of the Rye-House Plot. What is said of Charles' death-bed? What act was passed during his reign? 19. Who succeeded Charles?

formed to try those who had aided Monmouth. The commission, under its harsh chief, was guilty of extreme and unwarranted severity.

20. James and Liberty of Conscience.—The king wished to establish liberty of conscience for all his subjects, Catholic and Protestant. This sealed his fate. Seven of the bishops refused either to accept or maintain such liberty. They were imprisoned, sent to trial, and acquitted. For this they were regarded by the people as martyrs.

21. The Revolution (1688).—A conspiracy had been hatching among the nobles, and on the day of the bishops' acquittal Admiral Herbert set sail for Holland with a petition to William, Prince of Orange, inviting him to England. The petition was signed by the leaders of the English aristocracy. Louis XIV. warned James of his danger, but James refused to accept the warning. A son and heir was born to him in 1688. This quickened the movement against him. William landed in England at the head of an army of fifteen thousand men (November 3, 1688). James suddenly found himself wholly deserted and was allowed to escape to France, where he was hospitably received by Louis.

CHAPTER III.

IRELAND.

SECTION I. English Invasion of Ireland.

1. Internal Dissensions.—Under Henry II. Ireland was, in the words of Sir John Davies, Attorney-General for Ireland under James I., “cantonized among ten of the English nation; and though they did not gain possession of

Give an account of Monmouth's rebellion. 20. What struggle arose between James and the bishops? 21. By whom was William of Orange invited to England? State the rise and progress of the rebellion of 1688.

one-third of the kingdom, yet in title they were owners and lords of all." As the Irish did not admit of this title, the result was an unending struggle on the part of the Irish people for existence, on that of the invaders and their descendants for possession. The Irish, broken up by internal dissensions, weakened their own cause against a united, disciplined, and merciless foe with a great power to back them.

2. Statutes of Kilkenny.—The descendants of the Anglo-Norman invaders soon came to acquire Irish customs and habits. To prevent this the Statutes of Kilkenny were enacted (1367). These, in brief, forbade the English to take up any Irish custom whatever, or have any intercourse of friendship or alliance with the natives.

SECTION II. Ireland and the Tudors (1509-1603).

3. Henry VIII.—Henry VIII. resolved on establishing his spiritual supremacy in Ireland as well as in England. At this time only five of the Irish counties were subject to English rule. These were confined within what was called the Pale. Outside this the Irish chieftains lived in a state of actual independence and varied their wars on the English by wars upon one another.

4. Henry's Policy in Ireland.—To effect his supremacy Henry adopted within the Pale the same methods as in England. The monasteries were suppressed and their property was given to the nobles who were willing to apostatize. The Irish people remained steadfast in the faith.

5. A parliament was summoned in Dublin to pass the Act of Supremacy (1536). The ecclesiastical representatives refused to pass it and were excluded. Henry was then declared supreme head of the Church in Ireland.

1. How were the Irish treated under Henry II.? Describe the state of affairs in Ireland. 2. Why were the Statutes of Kilkenny passed? 3. On what did Henry VIII. resolve? 4. Describe Henry's policy.

6. Henry declared King of Ireland (1541).—St. Leger was appointed lord deputy. He bestowed the titles and estates of the suppressed monasteries on the Irish chieftains. He induced them to accept English titles, which was a practical acknowledgment of allegiance to Henry. They consented to sit in the parliament held in Dublin (June 12, 1541), which conferred on Henry and his successors the title of *king* in place of *lord* of Ireland.

7. Thenceforth began the gradual breaking up of the Irish clans. The clansmen repudiated the chieftains who had given in their allegiance, and chose others in their places. This was the signal for new strife and internal dissensions.

8. Ireland under Elizabeth.—During the reign of Elizabeth a systematic attempt was made to extirpate the Irish people and no barbarity was spared that might effect that end. Several of the more powerful chieftains defied the English government. The most formidable were Shane O'Neill, who was assassinated at English instigation; the Earl of Desmond, who, after a long struggle, was defeated and beheaded; and Hugh O'Neill, who first sided with the English, but afterwards, in conjunction with his nephew, Hugh O'Donnell, organized the strongest movement that had yet been made in favor of Irish independence. They received some assistance from the pope and from Spain, but in the end were overcome, O'Neill gaining full pardon for himself and his followers.

SECTION III. Ireland and the Stuarts (1603-1649).

9. Ireland "planted."—James I., whose accession was hailed with joy by the Irish people, continued the system of Elizabeth. O'Neill was compelled to fly and the country

5. Give an account of the Act of Supremacy. 6. By what means was Henry declared king of Ireland? 7. To what did this lead? 8. Describe the condition of Ireland under Elizabeth. What is said of Hugh O'Neill?

was defenceless. James set about "planting" it—that is, placing English and Scotch settlers on Irish soil to the exclusion of the natives. The Irish Catholics raised large sums of money for Charles I. in return for certain promises or "graces," which he forgot to keep. Wentworth, appointed lord-deputy (1632), ruled the land with a rod of iron.

10. Confederation of Kilkenny (1642).—The troubles of Charles' reign gave the Irish people another chance. Many of the exiled chieftains who had gained experience and distinction in foreign wars returned. The Catholics rose for the liberty of worship which Charles had promised them. The nobles of the Pale and the prelates joined in, and a national Confederation was formed at Kilkenny. Dissensions soon arose in the Confederation, which had tendered its services to the king. Owen Roe O'Neill gained an important victory over the English at Benburb (June 5, 1646), but dissensions among the chieftains prevented his following it up.

SECTION IV. Cromwell in Ireland.

11. Massacres at Drogheda and Wexford.—Cromwell went over to subdue the Irish, who still remained faithful to the royal cause. His campaign was brief and bloody. The massacres, under his orders, at Drogheda and Wexford, as well as in other places, are among the most cold-blooded in history. Most of the Irish soldiers entered foreign service. The people were again left defenceless. The system of "plantation" was pursued. Many thousands were shipped to the West Indies and there sold as slaves.

12. Confiscation of all Ireland.—Cromwell was determined to extirpate the Irish. All the property of the Irish people

9. What policy did the Stuarts pursue in Ireland? 10. Give an account of the Confederation of Kilkenny. 11. Describe Cromwell's campaign in Ireland. 12. On what did he determine?

was declared confiscate to England (September 26, 1653). For the Irish nation Connaught, the bleakest portion, was set apart, and any Irish person found outside of that province after May 1, 1654, was to suffer death. Most of the land was then divided up among Cromwell's followers, and the exercise of the Catholic religion was proscribed under the severest penalties.

13. Charles II. and James II.—Matters continued much the same under Charles II. During his reign Oliver Plunket, the venerable Archbishop of Armagh, was conveyed to London and there arraigned and executed for high treason, his only crime being his faith and high office. Under James II. freedom of conscience was restored, but his reign was too short to admit of any benefit from it.

SECTION V. William and Mary (1689-1702).

14. "Declaration of Right."—On the accession of William and Mary the Parliament obtained royal sanction for the "Declaration of Right," which put a stop to the power of the crown to dispense with or suspend laws without the consent of Parliament. The Presbyterian form of worship was established by law in Scotland. Freedom of worship and dispensation from taking the oath of supremacy were granted the Dissenters in England. But there was no concession to the Catholics.

15. Siege of Derry; the Boyne.—James, assisted by Louis XIV., landed in Ireland (March 22, 1689). Tyrconnell, the lord-deputy, met him with an army of forty thousand men. Derry and Enniskillen alone held out against him. Derry sustained a memorable siege. James frittered away his time and opportunities. In August William sent over a

How was the land divided? 13. What was the condition of affairs under Charles II. and James II.? 14. What did the English and the Scotch gain by the Declaration of Right? 15. What led to the siege of Derry?

thoroughly equipped force of sixteen thousand men under Schomberg. Next year he followed with thirty-six thousand men and assumed command. After a stubbornly contested battle at the Boyne near Drogheda, in which Schomberg was killed, the Irish were defeated. James fled before the battle was over, and hastily embarked for France, never to return.

16. Siege and Treaty of Limerick (1691).—The Irish still held out. Admiral Tourville gained a great victory over the combined English and Dutch fleets off the Isle of Wight. Athlone fell (June, 1691), and at Aughrim the Irish sustained a severe defeat, St. Ruth, the gallant French commander, being killed. Limerick alone remained to James, and was so stubbornly defended by Sarsfield, Earl of Lucan, that an honorable capitulation was allowed the garrison. A treaty was drawn up at Limerick allowing the free exercise of their religion and the peaceful enjoyment of their estates to the Irish Catholics. Two months after both king and Parliament basely violated the treaty. Those who chose were allowed to leave the country. About fourteen thousand left and took service in foreign lands.

17. Treaty of Ryswick.—A rising in favor of James in Scotland under Viscount Dundee ended in the defeat and death of that commander at Killiecrankie (1689). James was preparing for another descent on England, but the defeat of the French fleet by the English off Cape La Hogue (1692) crushed his hopes, and at the treaty of Ryswick (1697) Louis acknowledged William as King of England.

Give an account of the battle of the Boyne. What became of James? 16. Describe the siege of Limerick. What of the treaty of Limerick? 17. What took place in Scotland in 1689? What followed?

CHAPTER IV.

**LOUIS XIV. AFTER THE LEAGUE OF AUGSBURG
(1688-1715).**

THE war of the League of Augsburg compelled Louis to relinquish part of his conquests. A new war secured to him the Spanish succession.

SECTION I. War of the League of Augsburg (1688-1697).

1. French Victories.—William of Orange was untiring in his efforts to thwart Louis XIV. After the treaty of Ratisbon he succeeded in uniting Austria, Spain, Bavaria, Holland, and Savoy against France. The coalition was known as the League of Augsburg (1686). Louis opened the war by invading the Palatinate (1688), which his armies overran. But the great French generals were now dead and the French arms felt their loss. Meanwhile William of Orange had ascended the throne of England and threw that power into the scale of the allies. Notwithstanding some severe reverses the military superiority of the French was again established by Marshal Luxembourg, who defeated the allies at Fleurus (1690), Steenkerke (1692), Neerwinden (1693), and in other places. The Duke of Savoy was completely defeated by Marshal Catinat at Marsiglia. The war lingered till 1697. Both sides were exhausted. The wars and immense standing armies had drained the treasury of France. Peace was signed at Ryswick. By its terms Louis resigned nearly all his late conquests.

SECTION II. War of the Spanish Succession (1701-1714).

2. Causes of the War.—Charles II. of Spain, dying without issue (1700), willed his throne to Louis' grandson,

1. How did William of Orange thwart Louis? What did Louis invade? What new power was added to the allies? What successes were gained by the French? What was the effect of the war on France?

Philip, Duke of Anjou. As this meant the union of the Spanish and French crowns, Europe again took alarm, and Leopold I., Emperor of Germany, claimed the Spanish throne for his second son, the Archduke Charles. Philip was crowned at Madrid, and Louis promised him the right of succession to the French throne.

3. Coalition against France.—A coalition was again formed against Louis. It was known as the Triple Alliance of England, Holland, and Austria (September 7, 1701). The Elector of Brandenburg was drawn in by promise of the title of King of Prussia. Portugal joined later on, and France had no ally save the Elector of Bavaria. Charles was proclaimed king at Vienna (1703).

4. French Reverses.—The war opened in Italy with reverses for the French, where they were opposed by Prince Eugene of Savoy, who had entered the Austrian service. Later on the Duke of Vendôme retrieved these losses. But the Elector of Bavaria suffered a disastrous defeat at Hochstadt, losing all Bavaria (1704). Two years later all the Italian possessions were lost by Prince Eugene's victory at Turin. The Netherlands went next, as far as Lille, by Marlborough's victory over Villeroi at Ramillies; and finally the dukes of Burgundy and Vendôme were routed at Oudenarde (1708).

5. Battle of Malplaquet.—France was now invaded and menaced at all points. The rigorous winter of 1709 destroyed vegetation, and famine and despair seized upon the French. Louis sued for peace. The conditions of the allies were so harsh that he spurned them. The struggle in Spain, which the Archduke Charles, aided by the English, had invaded, varied considerably in its character. The country was divided between Philip and Charles, who

2. What led to the war of the Spanish succession? 3. Describe the coalition made against France. 4. Give an account of the progress of the war. 5. What led to the battle of Malplaquet?

was also proclaimed king. Philip, aided by the skill of Marshal Berwick, when in desperate straits succeeded in winning a much-needed victory at Almanza (1707). Further victories were followed by reverses; and the defeat of Marshal Villars at Malplaquet (1709) crowned the French disasters. Louis was again compelled to sue for peace; and again the conditions were so harsh that he rejected them.

6. Peace of Utrecht (1713).—France rose with its monarch for a final effort. Vendôme was sent into Spain and secured the crown to Philip by the decisive victory of Villaviciosa (1710). By the death of Leopold the Archduke Charles had now (1711) become Emperor of Germany, and consequently lost the assistance of the allies, who dreaded the preponderance of the house of Austria as much as that of France. Marlborough had fallen into disgrace. England had suffered severely from the wars, and was anxious to make peace. Prince Eugene was defeated by Villars at Denain (1712). This was followed by other victories, and peace was finally signed at Utrecht (April 11, 1713) between Holland, England, and France. The crown of Spain and the West Indies was secured to Philip, the English retaining Gibraltar and the Isle of Minorca, which they had captured. Sicily was ceded to the Duke of Savoy with the title of king. The Netherlands, Milan, Naples, and Sardinia fell to the house of Austria. Acadia, or Nova Scotia, Hudson's Bay, and Newfoundland were ceded by Louis to England.

7. Treaty of Radstadt.—The Emperor Charles VI. alone rejected the treaty. But Villars continuing his victories against Eugene, Charles thought it prudent to come to terms, and in the treaty of Radstadt confirmed the treaty

Why did Louis again reject the terms of peace? 6. What took place in 1710? In 1711? Where was Prince Eugene defeated? What were the terms of the peace of Utrecht?

of Utrecht (1714). Louis died in the following year, leaving only a great-grandson to succeed him. In his declining years he attempted to atone for the scandals of his early life.

CHAPTER V.

EUROPE IN THE TIME OF LOUIS XIV.

EUROPE witnessed three mighty struggles during the reign of Louis XIV.: in the west and south between France and her neighbors; in the north between Sweden and the other Baltic states; in the east between Turkey and Austria allied with Poland.

SECTION I. Sweden and the North; Charles XII. (1697-1718).

1. Queen Christina; Oxenstiern.—Gustavus Adolphus left his crown to his daughter Christina, then only six years of age (1632). She was educated by her aunt, the Princess Catharine, sister of Gustavus and wife of John Casimir, the Count Palatine. Catharine's son Charles was betrothed to Christina. She took the reins of government in her own hands in 1644, with the able Oxenstiern as chief minister. The Swedes were all this time engaged in the Thirty Years' War, and, under Oxenstiern's guidance and Torstenson's generalship, winning great victories over the imperialists.

2. Abdication of Queen Christina.—Christina did not favor the suit of her cousin, who had been betrothed to her in her childhood. After the treaty of Westphalia (1648) there was time to look into the internal affairs of the kingdom. These were found to be in a deplorable condition resulting from the exhaustive war. Christina,

7. Who rejected the treaty? By what treaty was that of Utrecht confirmed? What three mighty struggles took place during Louis' reign? 1. Give an account of Queen Christina. Of Oxenstiern. 2. Why did Christina abdicate?

weary of her position, abdicated in favor of her cousin Charles in 1654.

3. Growing Ascendency of Sweden.—John Casimir, King of Poland and son of Sigismund, aspired to the throne of Sweden. Charles invaded Poland and overran it in a three months' campaign. He compelled the Elector of Brandenburg to acknowledge himself a Swedish vassal. Casimir renewing the struggle, Charles, with the Elector of Brandenburg, again marched into Poland, and, after meeting with some reverses, gained a final victory after a three days' battle near Warsaw (1656). All Europe now grew jealous of the growing power of Sweden. Russia, Austria, Denmark, as well as Poland and Brandenburg, declared against Charles. But his courage rose above all trials and was crowned with success. He died suddenly (February 13, 1660), and was succeeded by his infant son, Charles XI. (1660-1697), whose reign was devoted to arranging the internal affairs of the kingdom.

4. Early Campaigns of Charles XII.—Charles, eldest son of Charles XI., succeeded at the age of fifteen. The hostile powers thought to have an easy victory over this boy and formed a league against him. Charles resolved on being beforehand with them. By the treaty of the Hague he won the assistance of England and Holland, and then fell suddenly upon Denmark (1700) and besieged Copenhagen. His impetuosity carried everything before it; the city surrendered almost without a fight, and Frederick IV. of Denmark hastened to sign a peace at Travendal by which he abandoned the coalition.

5. Campaigns in Poland and Russia.—Meanwhile the Poles had entered Livonia and the Russians Ingria. Charles turned first against the czar, who was besieging Narva.

3. Who aspired to the throne? What action did Charles take? Describe his progress. Who declared against him? What occupied the reign of Charles XI?

4. Describe the early campaigns of Charles XII.

With a force of eight thousand men he fell upon the fifty thousand Russians and totally routed them (November 30, 1700). He then turned against the Poles and Saxons entrenched on the Duna, and scattered them. He gained another great victory at Kliszów (1702), and might have made peace on his own terms had he so chosen. But, possessed by the passion of war, he went on from campaign to campaign. He drove Augustus II., the Elector of Saxony and King of Poland, from Warsaw, and set up Stanislas Leczinski, a young Polish noble, in his place (1704).

6. Battle of Pultowa (1709).—Meanwhile Russia had had time to recruit. Charles invaded that country at the head of forty-five thousand men, and was making for Moscow when he was turned aside by Mazeppa, a Cossack chief, with a promise of a rising of his people. Charles plunged deeper and deeper into a devastated country, losing his troops on the way, and wintered at Gadatch, on the Dnieper. He purposed attacking Pultowa, a strong fortress with abundance of provisions, in the spring (1709). But Peter came up with an army of seventy thousand men and wholly routed the decimated force of Swedes.

7. Charles XII. in Turkey.—Charles fled for refuge to the sultan. He brought on war between Turkey and Russia. The grand vizier, at the head of two hundred thousand men, surrounded the Russians on the Pruth, and Peter's cause seemed lost, when his wife bribed the vizier to let him escape. Charles delayed among the Turks till 1713, hoping to have himself set at the head of their armies.

8. Decline of the Swedes; Death of Charles.—Meanwhile

5. Give an account of his campaigns in Poland and Russia. 6. What led to the battle of Pultowa? Give the result. 7. Describe Charles' movements while in Turkey.

the Russians and Saxons had things their own way in the north and reconquered most of their possessions from the Swedes. Stanislas had to fly and joined Charles at Bender. Compelled at last to leave Bender, Charles traversed Europe in disguise and arrived by night at Stralsund (1714). The city was immediately besieged by the allies and obstinately defended by Charles. Finding it untenable, he retired to Lund (1715). He was killed while besieging the fortress of Frederickshald, in Norway (December 11, 1718). The war was ended by large cessions to the Elector of Hanover, the King of Prussia, and the czar. The power of Sweden was broken and all danger of her preponderance in the north ended.

SECTION II. Russia: Peter the Great (1682-1725).

9. Growth of Russian Power.—Russia was delivered from the Mongols by Ivan III., the Great (1462-1505). He was the first to assume the title of Autocrat of all the Russias. His son, Ivan IV., the Terrible (1533-1584), completed the work of his father, consolidated the power of the throne, and added greatly to the Russian dominions. Siberia was acquired during his reign. After the death of his son, Feodor I. (1584-1598), the throne became an object of contention to several aspirants and the country was devastated by civil war. With Feodor ended the race of Rurik. At last, in 1613, the Russians raised Michael Romanoff to the throne, and he became the founder of the Romanoff dynasty.

10. Accession of Peter the Great (1689).—His grandson Peter, displacing his sister Sophia from the regency, ascended the throne in 1689. Russia was already one of the most powerful nations of northern Europe. But the

8. What was Sweden suffering in the north? How did Charles reach Stralsund? What followed? What was the consequence of his death? 9. Describe the growth of Russia. 10. How did Peter the Great reach the throne?

Swedes had wrested from it the Baltic coast, and the Turks had closed against it the entrance to the Black Sea.

11. Peter's Home Policy.—The nation was still semi-barbaric and Peter resolved on civilizing it. He brought intelligent men from abroad to instruct his people, and travelled abroad himself to learn the arts and see the civilization of other nations. His reforms, though harshly enforced, were effectual. His iron will put down all opposition. He broke the power of the nobles and established an absolute form of government, making himself the head of the church as well as of the state (1721).

12. Peter's Acquisitions.—In 1703 he built a city named after himself, St. Petersburg, and made it his capital. He conquered Charles XII., and by his acquisitions from Sweden not only greatly enlarged his own borders on the north, but strengthened them. He also defeated the Persians, from whom he wrested important territories on the Caspian (1723).

13. Death of Peter.—He reorganized his army on the German plan and built a fleet. Returning from France (1717), he found that his son and heir, Alexis, was implicated in a revolt against his authority. The prince was tried, condemned to death, and a few days after found dead in prison. Remorse for the deed probably hastened the death of the father, who died in 1725, leaving the throne to the Empress Catharine.

SECTION III. Humiliation of Turkey.

14. Turkish Reverses.—After the battle of Lepanto the Turkish power rapidly declined. Selim II. was succeeded by sultans weaker and more effeminate even than himself. Their enervating example had an evil effect on the whole

How had Russia been crippled? 11. Outline Peter's home policy. 12. What city did he build? What territory did he acquire? 13. Mention other deeds of Peter. What of his death? 14. What hastened the decline of Turkey?

people. Nevertheless attempts were made to extend the Turkish power along the Danube and the Mediterranean. Hungary suffered from various invasions, and there were frequent wars between the Turks and Poland, Austria, Venice, and Russia; but the power of the Turks was on the wane.

15. Meanwhile there had been war with Austria since 1660, and the Turks overran Hungary. Germany, France, and Italy formed a coalition against them, and Monteculi gained a great victory over them at St. Gothard, on the Raab (August 1, 1664). This was followed by the peace of Temesvár.

16. **Sobieski and the Turks.**—In 1672 the sultan invaded Poland. John Sobieski, afterwards king, was then in command of the Polish armies. The king, Michael Korybut, concluded a disgraceful peace at Kamenetz. Sobieski caused the senate to reject it, and attacked and completely defeated the Turks at Khotin (1673). The king dying soon after, Sobieski was chosen to succeed him. Peace was made with the Turks in 1676.

17. **Second Siege of Vienna (1683).**—The dissensions and disturbances in Germany offered the Turks an opportunity in that direction, and war was declared (1682). In the following summer Kara Mustafa, the grand vizier, marched on Vienna at the head of three hundred thousand men. The Emperor Leopold fled to Linz, and the city was left to its own resources with the heroic Stahremberg for leader. The Turks invested it, and Vienna was reduced to the last extremity, when Sobieski, having formed a junction with Charles of Lorraine and a body of German troops, came to its relief. The Turks were routed with terrible loss (September 12, 1683).

What attempts were made to extend Turkish power? 15. What events brought about the peace of Temesvár? 16. Give an account of Sobieski's struggle with the Turks. 17. What led to the second siege of Vienna? Give the result,

18. The Turkish Power broken.—Thenceforth disaster after disaster fell upon the Turks. They lost province after province. At Mohács (August 12, 1687) Charles of Lorraine again routed them with great slaughter. Prince Eugene beat them on the Danube, and they were compelled to sign a peace at Carlovitz (1699), by which Mustapha II. ceded most of his Hungarian possessions to Austria and made other concessions to other powers. Thenceforth Turkey never raised her head against Europe, though she had contests with single powers, chiefly with Russia and the insurgent peoples subject to her sway.

18. What took place at Mohács? What befell the Turks on the Danube? By what was this defeat followed? State what is said of the further connection of Turkey with European affairs.

FOURTH EPOCH.

FROM THE ACCESSION OF LOUIS XV. TO THE FRENCH REVOLUTION (1715-1789).

THE fourth epoch, or eighteenth century, comprises the reigns of Louis XV. and Louis XVI. in France, and ends with the French Revolution.

CHAPTER I.

LOUIS XV. (1715-1774).

THE reign of Louis XV., during the regency and ministry of the Duke de Bourbon, shows a violent reaction against the absolutism of Louis XIV. Later on the Seven Years' War ruins the French colonies. The spirit of infidelity makes rapid progress.

SECTION I. The Regency (1715-1723) and Ministry of the Duke de Bourbon (1723-1726).

1. Orleans Regency.—After the death of Louis XIV. there came in France a reaction against the profitless wars that had drained the country, as well as against the absolutism which could make war at its will. During the minority of the young king his cousin, the Duke of Orleans, was regent. He attained to popularity by restoring some of the privileges of the parliament which Louis XIV. had taken away.

2. Law and the Mississippi Scheme.—The regent set to work to restore the finances, and was captivated by the scheme of a Scotch adventurer named John Law. Law established a West India Company, better known as the

1. What reaction set in during the Orleans regency? How did the Duke of Orleans attain popularity? 2. What did the regent endeavor to do with the finances? What scheme captivated him?

“Mississippi Bubble,” with a view to colonizing the French possessions in America and drawing a revenue from them. An enormous number of shares were issued and Law was made comptroller-general of the finances. The bubble burst and France was plunged into deeper financial embarrassment than before.

3. War with Spain.—The regent was drawn into a war with Spain, whose minister at the time was the able Cardinal Alberoni. The cardinal’s schemes were defeated by the formation of an alliance of England, Germany, Holland, and France against Spain, which resulted in the dismissal of Alberoni.

4. Public Discontent.—The Duke of Orleans died in 1723, and was succeeded in the ministry by the Duke de Bourbon, great-grandson of the great Condé. The French court under both regents was very corrupt. Its scandals disgusted the people, while the onerous taxes raised to fill the depleted treasury and pockets of those in power exasperated them. In 1725 the king married Maria Leczinski, daughter of Stanislas of Poland, who, on the defeat of Charles XII., had lost his throne, which was restored to Augustus. She was a virtuous and amiable woman. The marriage was brought about by the Duke de Bourbon, despite the fact that Louis had already been affianced to the daughter of Philip V. of Spain. Philip’s anger caused the dismissal of the duke and instalment of Cardinal Fleury, former tutor to the king, in his place (1726).

SECTION II. Ministry of Cardinal Fleury (1726-1743).

5. The Cardinal’s Policy.—Cardinal Fleury endeavored, and with much success, to keep the peace and restore the

Give an account of the Mississippi Bubble. 3. How were Cardinal Alberoni’s plans ruined? 4. By whom was the regent succeeded? What was the state of affairs under the regents? What led to the ministry of Cardinal Fleury?

disordered finances. He prevented the coalition of Philip V. and Charles VI. of Germany against France by getting them to quarrel over the duchies of Parma and Piacenza, left vacant by the death of the last of the Farneses. Elizabeth Farnese, Queen of Spain, his niece, was left as his sole heir. Her eldest son, Don Carlos, was proclaimed as his successor. Fleury supported the claim against Charles VI., who claimed it for himself.

6. The Pragmatic Sanction.—Charles had lost his only son. In order to secure the succession of the throne of Austria to his family he issued the “Pragmatic Sanction.” This ensured the succession in the female line, and his daughter, Maria Theresa, was appointed heir. France, Bavaria, and Saxony refused to recognize the change. England, France, Denmark, and Holland leagued against him. He secured the aid of Spain by surrendering his claims to the disputed duchies, and that of Prussia and Russia by large grants of territory. At the intervention of the pope a general agreement was arrived at in Vienna (March 16, 1731), by which all the powers accepted the Pragmatic Sanction at the cost of further sacrifices on the part of the emperor. One of his promises was to secure the succession of the throne of Poland and Saxony to the son of Augustus II.

7. War for the Polish Succession.—Augustus died in 1733, and the Poles chose Stanislas Leczinski to succeed him. Charles, with slight support from Russia, declared for Augustus III. France, Spain, and Sardinia supported his rival, and a new war of succession broke out. A French army entered Italy, possessed itself of Milan and nearly all Lombardy, as well as Lorraine. The Spaniards occupied Naples and Sicily. Charles, beaten on all sides, was com-

5. What was the cardinal's policy? How did he prevent a coalition against France? 6. What was the “Pragmatic Sanction”? How was it received? What led to its acceptance? 7. Outline the war for the Polish succession.

pelled to sue for peace. It was signed at Vienna. Augustus III. was acknowledged King of Poland. Lorraine was given to Stanislas, after whose death it was to revert to France. France retained her Italian conquests, and Spain hers (1735). In the following year Charles declared war against the Turks and was equally unsuccessful. Peace was signed at Belgrade (September 18, 1739). Charles died in 1740, leaving to his daughter a greatly diminished and disorganized empire, but one still of vast extension.

8. War for the Austrian Succession (1740).—Immediately on the death of Charles the electors of Saxony and Bavaria and the kings of Prussia, Spain, and Sardinia repudiated the Pragmatic Sanction which they had signed at Vienna, and disputed Maria Theresa's right to the throne, each claiming some portion of her territories for himself. Maria, who had been married to Francis I., Duke of Lorraine and Tuscany, was a woman of great ability and courage. She entered Vienna and received the homage of her Austrian states.

9. Maria Theresa and Frederick of Prussia.—The young empress saw none but enemies around her. Frederick II. had just ascended the throne of Prussia. Resolved on enlarging his dominions, he invaded and occupied Lower Silesia. Charles Albert, the Elector of Bavaria, took Prague, and caused himself to be elected emperor at Frankfort, with the title of Charles VII. Aided by France, he threatened Vienna and the empress was compelled to fly.

10. Maria Theresa and the Hungarians.—Maria fled to Hungary and convoked the diet at Presburg (1741). With her infant son in her arms she appeared before the assembled nobles. Her beauty and misfortunes won their hearts

How was peace secured? What was the state of the empire when Charles died? 8. Who repudiated the Pragmatic Sanction? What is said of Maria Theresa? 9. Name the enemies that surrounded her. 10. What step did she take?

and all swore to die for their "king," Maria Theresa. George II. of England proved also a faithful ally. The French and Bavarians were routed and driven out. Frederick made peace (1742), retaining Silesia. Charles lost Bohemia, and the Austrian successes induced Frederick to resume the offensive.

11. Battle of Dettingen.—Cardinal Fleury died in 1743, and Louis, who was now thirty-four, resolved on taking supreme control of affairs in France. Making an alliance with Frederick, they declared war against England, the ally of Austria, with whom Holland and Sardinia now sided. The French were defeated by the English and Hanoverians under George II. near Dettingen (1743). Charles VII. dying, his son became an ally of Maria Theresa and supported the election of Francis to the imperial throne (1745).

12. Defeats of the Imperialists.—Marshal Saxe, who commanded under Louis XV., won various victories in the Netherlands, the most celebrated of which was at Fontenoy, where the heroism of the Irish Brigade under Lord Clare turned defeat into a great victory (1745). Other victories followed. Frederick of Prussia, on his side, was also winning important successes. He took Dresden in 1745, and, seeing Maria Theresa powerless, made peace, acknowledging Francis as emperor, and being himself confirmed in possession of Silesia (December 25, 1745). By his conquests he had already doubled the number of his subjects, and now held the balance of power in Germany. Prussia enjoyed peace for the eleven ensuing years.

13. Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle (1748).—Meanwhile the French pursued their campaigns and victories, while the

What successes crowned her efforts? 11. What new alliance was made? Where were the French defeated? What followed the death of Charles VII.? 12. Re-count the defeats of the imperialists. What had Frederick gained for Prussia?

English were victorious over the allies on the seas. Austria was victorious in Italy. Elizabeth of Russia now came to the assistance of Maria Theresa, and peace was brought about at Aix-la-Chapelle (1748). Parma, Piacenza, and Guastalla were ceded to Philip, the Spanish infant, and part of the duchy of Milan to Sardinia. France and England interchanged their conquests, both countries being exhausted by the war. Maria, under the direction of her able minister, Kaunitz, turned her attention to internal affairs. She reformed the administration, relieved the lot of the peasant class, abolished torture, encouraged education, and in every respect showed herself a mild and enlightened sovereign. But the mutual jealousies of the powers did not long allow this happy state of things to continue.

SECTION III. The American Colonies.

14. The Spanish Colonies.—The colonies of the European powers on the American continent were drawn into the contests in Europe. The Spaniards had explored and conquered the coast-line in South America, with the exception of Brazil, which belonged to Portugal. They established colonies and sent out missionaries to convert the natives. In 1565 they established the first permanent settlement in what are now the United States at St. Augustine, Florida.

15. The French Colonies.—While the Spaniards were in the South the French turned to the North. In 1535 Jacques Cartier ascended the St. Lawrence as far as where Montreal now stands. In 1605 Samuel Champlain established the colony of Port Royal, in Acadia (*Nova Scotia*). In 1610 this was made a central station for Jesuit missions among the Indian tribes. In 1609 Champlain ex-

13. How was peace brought about? What were the main features of the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle? What reforms were made by Maria? 14. What had the Spaniards accomplished in America? 15. What is said of the French colonies?

explored part of New York and discovered the lake that bears his name. In 1646 Father Isaac Jogues discovered the Lake of the Holy Sacrament (now *Lake George*). Father Marquette, in the course of his missions, sailed down the Mississippi and made great discoveries. He was followed by La Salle, who explored the river to the Gulf of Mexico. On the strength of these discoveries the French established their claims to the West.

16. The English Colonies.—The English claimed the northern part of the continent by right of Cabot's discovery in the reign of Henry VII. Sir Humphrey Gilbert and Sir Walter Raleigh obtained a charter from Queen Elizabeth for the discovery and occupation of all lands lying between Florida and New France. In 1584 Raleigh discovered and named Virginia after the queen. In the reign of James I. a systematic attempt at colonization was made by wealthy citizens of London, Bristol, and Plymouth, who formed the Plymouth and London Companies under favor of the crown. All the territory from Cape Fear to the Bay of Fundy, bordering on the Spanish possessions at one extremity and the French at the other, was given to the companies.

17. Colonial Rivalries.—The antagonisms of the home governments, as well as their own jealousies, soon brought the colonists into contention. The Spaniards confined themselves to the South, but, in virtue of being first discoverers, claimed all the continent north of them. They called their dependencies New Spain, including Mexico and the adjoining territory. The rest of the southern continent they called Florida. The French held Canada and part of the Northern States, claiming everything south of them. Their possessions they called New France. The English claimed

Name two French explorers. Two Jesuits. 16. Mention the earliest attempts at settlement made by the English. What was allotted to the companies? 17. What brought the various colonies into conflict? State their claims.

all the country from New England and Carolina westward to the Pacific, the whole territory being called Virginia.

18. Dutch Colonies.—In 1609 Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the service of the Dutch East India Company, discovered the river called after him and sailed up it as far as Albany. Thus the Dutch claimed the coast from New Jersey to the Bay of Fundy and named the territory New Netherland. In 1613 they built a fort on Manhattan Island, now New York City, and in 1614 established a permanent settlement at Fort Nassau, near Albany.

19. New York; Landing of the Puritans.—In the reign of Charles II. New Netherland came into possession of the English, and the name of New York was given to the town and province in honor of James, Duke of York, brother of the king, on whom Charles bestowed the whole territory from the Connecticut to the Delaware. The English were established in possession at the close of the war between England and Holland during the same reign. In the preceding reign (1620) the first Puritan colony landed from the *Mayflower* on the Massachusetts coast and founded the town of New Plymouth.

20. Puritan Intolerance.—The religious troubles of the Old World were brought into the New. The only English colony that professed and practised toleration in matters of religion in the seventeenth century was the Catholic colony of Maryland, founded by Lord Baltimore, a Catholic, in 1634. The Puritans obtained possession of its government in 1655, and at once reversed the order of things. The Catholic religion was proscribed and Catholics were excluded from office. During the reign of William and Mary Maryland was made a royal province, the Anglican form of faith was established, and Catholics were disfranchised.

18. On what did the Dutch base their claim? What settlements were made by them? 19. How did the English acquire New York? Where had the first English colony been founded? 20. Tell of the Puritans. Of Maryland.

21. The Colonies and the Crown.—Carolina, claimed by English and Spaniards, was erected into a province by Charles II. (1663). In 1681 Pennsylvania was settled by a colony of Quakers under William Penn. In 1685 trouble arose between the colonies and the crown in consequence of James II. demanding a surrender of their charters. After the expulsion of James the charters were renewed and religious toleration for all save Catholics was proclaimed.

22. The Colonies take part in the European Wars.—The English were enclosed by a line of French colonies and outposts. This brought the colonists into collision. The colonies took part in the wars during the reign of Louis XIV. The treaty between France and England in 1697 put an end to the conflict.

23. Cession of Newfoundland and Nova Scotia.—In 1702 the colonists again took part in the home troubles, and, the Spaniards being allied to the French, the English were hemmed in on all sides. With the treaty of Utrecht (1713) came peace and the cession of Newfoundland and Acadia to England. Acadia was thenceforth named Nova Scotia. During these conflicts the Jesuit missions among the Indians suffered severely.

24. Colonial Prosperity.—In the intervals of peace the English colonies prospered and increased in population. The French did a great trading business and resolved on building up a Western power. After being expelled from Acadia they built a strong fortress at Louisburg, in the mouth of the St. Lawrence. In the war between George II. and Louis XV. this was captured by the English colonists (1745), but was restored to the French by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

21. Give an account of the Pennsylvania colony. 22. Why did the colonies take part in the European wars? 23. What led to the cession of Newfoundland and Acadia? 24. On what did the French resolve after the loss of Acadia?

SECTION IV. England: Queen Anne (1702-1714); the House of Hanover.

25. Mary, wife of William III., died in 1694, and was followed by her husband in 1702. During William's reign a standing army was for the first time established in England by Act of Parliament. In 1693 the Bank of England was founded by English capitalists.

26. **Union of Scotland with England.**—William was succeeded by Anne, second daughter of James II. and wife of Prince George of Denmark (1702). It was during her reign that the Duke of Marlborough gained great renown for the British arms. In 1707 the Act of Union between England and Scotland was passed. The Scotch law and administration of justice remained unchanged, but the two nations were henceforth to be governed under one legislature, the Scotch to be represented in the English Parliament. The countries were known as Great Britain. Anne's reign was also remarkable for its literary brilliancy, and has been called the Augustan era of English literature.

27. **Accession of the House of Hanover.**—Prince George died in 1708; the queen died six years later. All her children died before her, and, the Protestant succession having been fixed, the crown of England passed to the Hanoverian descendants of James I. George, the Elector of Hanover, was invited over (1714) and took peaceable possession of the throne. In the following year the grandson of James II. landed in Scotland, where a rising was effected in his favor, but was crushed at Preston (1715). There was great strife of parties during the reign and much intrigue in and about the court. A speculation known as the "South-Sea Bubble" was set up and burst, causing great financial disaster in England.

25. When did William III. die? What were established during his reign? 26. Who succeeded William? What act was passed in 1707? For what was Anne's reign remarkable? 27. What led to the accession of the house of Hanover?

28. George II. (1727-1760).—George I. died in 1727 and was succeeded by his son, George II. He took a very active part in foreign affairs and proved a steadfast ally to Maria Theresa. The bitter strife of parties continued in England during all his reign. Charles Edward, “the Young Pretender,” grandson of James II., landed in Scotland and raised a new revolt, which at first proved successful and at one time threatened the throne. George II. was making preparations for flight when the defeat of the young prince at Culloden (April 16, 1746) put an end to the rising and to the hopes of the Stuarts.

29. Braddock's Defeat.—The European wars led to troubles in the American colonies, and General Braddock was sent out with a couple of regiments to organize an army for the protection of the English colonies against the French. He was defeated and slain near Fort Du Quesne (now Pittsburgh) on July 9, 1755, and the remnants of his force were only saved by the skill and coolness of George Washington, a young Virginian serving with Braddock's command.

30. War with France.—In the following year England declared war against France. General Abercrombie, with several regiments, was sent to America, and the Marquis of Montcalm was despatched to take command of the French. The struggle also extended to the East Indies, where the French and English were rivals. The success at first lay with the French.

31. Pitt's Ministry; Conquest of Canada.—In 1757 William Pitt became prime minister. Pitt at once assumed a vigorous foreign policy, recalled Loudon, the incompetent commander-in-chief, from America, and gave the command to Abercrombie, sending twelve thousand troops

28. Outline the reign of George II. What ended the hopes of the Stuarts?
29. Give an account of Braddock's defeat. 30. What generals were sent to America? 31. Who became prime minister of England?

and a powerful fleet to his aid. The fortress of Louisburg was captured (July 27, 1758), and other important victories soon followed. These were crowned by the capture of Quebec (1759), where Wolfe and Montcalm, the opposing generals, both fell. Montreal surrendered soon after, and the whole of Canada was in the hands of the English. This ended the war in the American colonies, in which the colonists themselves bore a very active and important part.

32. English Success in India.—In India also the English were equally successful. The French gave scant support to their colonists, and their possessions soon changed hands. Clive laid the foundations of English power in India, and by the great victory of Plassey (1757) established England's supremacy. The defeat of the French fleet by Admiral Hawke off Quiberon established her supremacy at sea. In a war with Spain English privateers reaped a rich harvest from the seas. In the midst of all these triumphs George II. died suddenly (October 25, 1760). A conflict between the crown and the Irish Parliament begun during his reign led eventually to the Act of Union between England and Ireland.

SECTION V. The Seven Years' War (1756-1763).

33. Coalition against Prussia.—The jealousies of the European powers soon created a rupture of the general peace, and a Seven Years' War was the result. Austria won over France, her enemy for three centuries, and, with Sweden, Poland, and Russia, combined against Prussia (1755). Prussia found an ally in England; Spain, Holland, and Sardinia remaining neutral.

34. Frederick of Prussia in Saxony.—Frederick began

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- What steps were taken against the French? Give the result of the war.
32. What took place in India? On the ocean? What led to the Act of Union?
33. What caused the Seven Years' War? How were the various nations allied?

by invading Saxony. He defeated the Austrians at Lowositz (1756), and the Saxon army surrendered soon after. Saxony was in his hands and turned against the allies. He gained another victory at Prague (1757), but with the loss of twelve thousand men. Defeated at Kolin, he was driven from Bohemia, and the armies of the allies, pouring in, threatened his capital.

35. Frederick's Victories.—Dissensions among the allies gave Frederick courage, and he gained a great victory over the French at Rossbach (November 5, 1757). This was followed by a victory over the Austrians at Leuthen (December 5, 1757), and a still bloodier one over the Russians at Zorndorf (August 25, 1758). Meanwhile the French had beaten his English allies in various engagements, and Marshal Richelieu compelled the Duke of Cumberland to capitulate at Closterseven.

36. Prussian Reverses.—After beating the Russians and driving them from Prussia Frederick entered Saxony. The tide of victory now turned against him. He suffered a terrible surprise from the Austrian general, Daun, at Hochkirchen (October, 1758). In the following year he was beaten again at Kunnersdorf, with a loss of two-thirds of his army. The Austrians took Dresden and the Russians entered Berlin.

37. Peace of Paris (1763).—Again did Frederick rally his people, and in 1760 he won the battles of Liegnitz and Torgau. Reverses followed, but in 1762 Elizabeth of Russia, the strong ally of Maria Theresa, died and was succeeded by Peter III., who withdrew from the coalition. Frederick gained new victories over the Austrians, and the French withdrew their armies, declaring neutrality. All were now anxious for peace. France had

34. Describe Frederick's movements. What followed his defeat at Kolin?

35. What encouraged Frederick? Tell of his victories. What of the English?

36. Give an account of the Prussian reverses. 37. What followed?

lost her colonies to the English, and Austria and Prussia were exhausted. Peace was signed at Paris (February 10, 1763) between England, France, and Spain, which had been dragged into the war towards its close.

38. Close of the Seven Years' War.—Five days later Prussia and Austria came to terms at Hubertsburg. Frederick was allowed to retain Silesia. Canada and other French possessions in North America fell to England, and she retained her conquests in India. Spain ceded Florida to her in return for conquests surrendered by the English. As a last humiliation Louis XV. was compelled to dismantle Dunkirk on the sea side.

39. The Duke de Choiseul was chief minister of France at this time. By the death of Stanislas Leczinski (1761) Lorraine reverted to France, and the island of Corsica fell to it in 1768. In the following year Napoleon Bonaparte was born in Ajaccio (August 15, 1769).

40. Decline of the Royal Authority in France.—Louis XV. belied the promise of his youth. Giving himself up to vice, his example set the fashion in France. The parliaments waxed bolder against their effeminate king. Society became corrupt. Jansenism, combined with a growing disbelief, had infected the higher classes in Church as well as state. The favorite writings of the day in France were assaults on religion and Christian belief. The chief opponents of the gathering infidelity were the members of the Company of Jesus. It was resolved to suppress them, and the enmity of Madame de Pompadour, the favorite of the king, helped on the suppression.

41. Suppression of the Jesuits in France (1764).—On August 6, 1762, a decree was issued in France declaring the Society of Jesus to be "inadmissible in any civilized

When was peace signed? 38. What were the terms of the peace? How was Louis XV. humiliated? 39. Mention some notable events of this decade. 40. How was royal authority in France weakened? What was the state of religion?

state, because contrary to natural law and dangerous to spiritual and temporal authority." Choiseul was their enemy as well as Pompadour, and the suppression received the king's sanction in 1764. Louis wept as he signed the decree. In the following year the Dauphin died.

42. Causes of Discontent.—The disputes between Louis and his parliaments increased in bitterness. The long wars had emptied the treasury and the taxes were increased. The taxes fell upon the poor and middle classes, the nobles being exempt. This deepened the growing dissatisfaction with a scandalous and corrupt government which had brought nothing but loss and humiliation to France. Louis died in time to escape the storm that was impending (1774).

43. The Secret Societies.—The nations were weary and exhausted by the long wars. A feeling of resentment was springing up on all sides against the rulers and the governments that caused such bloodshed and oppression. Secret societies were formed which had for their object the overthrow of the existing order of things. They were known under the general name of Freemasons, and had an avowed hatred to Christianity. The Protestant Reformation, by shaking the unity of faith, gradually led many who accepted its doctrines to throw aside all faith. The lettered classes lapsed into practical infidelity, and the lower classes were much neglected and oppressed.

44. Voltaire and Rousseau.—François Arouet, better known as Voltaire, devoted all the powers of a brilliant intellect to assaults on Christianity. During a sojourn in England he became indoctrinated with the writings of Locke and Hume, who gave the first English expression

41. What decree was issued against the Jesuits? What happened in the following year? 42. What were causes of discontent in France? When did the king die? 43. What societies arose about this time? What of Protestantism?

to the growing unbelief. He was aided by Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778), a Genevese, who attacked society as Voltaire attacked the Church. These two men gave its intellectual form to the coming revolution that was to overthrow both Church and state.

CHAPTER II.

THE TWO REVOLUTIONS.

IN 1775 the English colonies in America revolted against the government of Great Britain. They won their independence in 1783. In 1789 the French people overthrew the government in France, and, after ten years of wild excesses, yielded to the power of Napoleon Bonaparte.

SECTION I. The American Revolution (1775-1783).

1. Causes of the Revolution.—During the Seven Years' War the American colonists of England had expended sixteen million dollars and lost thirty thousand men. England refunded only five millions, and in addition sought to ruin the colonial industry in favor of the home market.

2. English Oppression.—There were now thirteen American colonies, with a population of about two millions, three hundred and fifty thousand of whom were negro slaves. The colonists were indignant at the restrictive and oppressive measures of a government for which they had made such generous sacrifices. But all their petitions for redress of grievances were met with contempt. Odious acts were passed that at last drove the people into revolt.

3. Beginning of the Revolt.—The colonists were forbidden to trade with any country but England. They retorted by refusing to take English goods. The first outbreak oc-

44. What is said of Voltaire? Of Rousseau? What was the effect of their writings? 1. What had the Seven Years' War cost the American colonies? 2. What treatment did they receive from England? 3. How did the revolt begin?

curred in Boston harbor (1773). Three ships laden with tea arrived. The citizens refused to take the tea. Governor Hutchinson insisted that they should. The matter was settled by a band of citizens who boarded the vessels and threw the tea into the water (December 16, 1773). Boston was closed to all ships by act of Parliament, and the privileges granted in the charter of Massachusetts were withdrawn. Troops were quartered on the colonists at their expense. The people were ripe for revolt.

4. Declaration of Rights (1774).—An assembly of delegates, representing all the colonies save Georgia, met in Philadelphia (September 5, 1774). A Declaration of Colonial Rights was drawn up. It set forth the people's claim to a share in making their own laws and imposing their own taxes. It denied the right of the crown to send accused persons to England for trial, to maintain a standing army among the colonists without their consent, or to forbid peaceable public meetings to be held.

5. Lexington (1775).—Massachusetts was still bolder in its expression of resistance. A Provincial Congress under the presidency of John Hancock assembled, called out troops, and collected military supplies. General Gage sent his soldiers to destroy the arms and ammunition which the colonists had stored at Concord. They were met at Lexington by a small party of armed colonists, whom Major Pitcairn ordered to disperse. On their refusal they were fired upon and eight were killed. This began the War of Independence (April 19, 1775).

6. Bunker Hill.—The colonists now rose and drove the British from Concord. They retreated to Boston. In less than a month there were twenty thousand armed colonists encamped around that city. A second Continental Con-

Give an account of the destruction of tea at Boston. 4. When and where was the Declaration of Rights drawn up? What did it set forth? 5. What took place at Lexington? 6. What followed the retreat of the British?

gress met at Philadelphia (May 10, 1775) and formed a federal union with governmental authority. The British army in Boston was reinforced, and on June 17, 1775, the battle of Bunker Hill was fought, which resulted in a defeat of the Americans, but at a very dear price.

7. Campaign in Canada.—The colonial force was named the Continental Army by Congress, and the chief command was given to George Washington. A second army was raised for an attack on Canada, and the command given to General Schuyler. He falling sick, it devolved on Montgomery, an Irish officer of experience and repute. Montgomery took Montreal, and with Benedict Arnold attacked Quebec. The attack failed and Montgomery was killed.

8. Declaration of Independence.—On March 17, 1776, the British evacuated Boston. On July 2 (proclaimed July 4) Congress declared that “these United Colonies are, and of right ought to be, free and independent States ; that they are absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the state of Great Britain is, and ought to be, totally dissolved.” The reasons for the separation were drawn up by Thomas Jefferson in the celebrated Declaration of Independence.

9. Defeat of the Colonists.—Washington had moved on New York, where he was watching the British. On August 27 the colonists were defeated on Long Island. In September New York was evacuated and remained in the hands of the British to the close of the war.

10. Colonial Successes.—Washington’s courage and skill alone saved the cause of independence at this time. He rallied and reorganized his disheartened forces in the very face of the enemy. He retreated slowly, drawing them after him. A sudden victory over a body of Hessians

On what did the second Continental Congress determine ? What occurred at Bunker Hill ? 7. Give an account of the Canadian campaign. 8. Of the Declaration of Independence. 9. Of the retreat from Long Island. 10. What saved the cause ?

revived the drooping courage of his troops, and was followed by another success at Princeton (January 3, 1777).

11. Aid from France.—Benjamin Franklin was sent on an embassy to France and succeeded in gaining the alliance of that country. Money and supplies were liberally furnished him. A fleet was also sent, and the offer of commissions brought many distinguished soldiers to the American cause, chief among whom were Kosciuszko and Pulaski, Baron Steuben, Baron de Kalb, and the Marquis de Lafayette.

12. Burgoyne's Surrender (1777).—In September, 1777, the Americans were defeated at the Brandywine, and in October at Germantown. But these reverses were compensated for by the surrender of General Burgoyne and all his command at Saratoga (October 17, 1777). This surrender alarmed the British government, which now attempted to treat with the colonists.

13. Alliance with France and Spain (1778).—In February, 1778, France signed a treaty of commerce and friendship with the Americans, and of defensive alliance should England declare war against France. Spain and Holland did the same. The arrival of a French fleet under Count d'Estaing caused the British to evacuate Philadelphia and relieved Washington at Valley Forge. The British fell back on New York, and Washington pursued them.

14. Campaign in the South.—In the winter of 1778-1779 the British made a diversion in the South. Georgia was invaded and occupied. Charleston was taken after a brave defence (May 12, 1780). Generals Gates and De Kalb were sent South, but were surprised by Lord Cornwallis near Camden (August 16). Gates fled and De Kalb was killed.

15. Arnold's Treason.—Washington's forces were now in

11. What was Franklin's mission to France? How did it succeed? 12. Give an account of Burgoyne's campaign. 13. What alliances were made? What forced the British to leave Philadelphia? 14. Outline Southern campaign.

a state of great destitution. Just at this time Benedict Arnold entered into treasonable correspondence with Sir Henry Clinton for the surrender of West Point, a post of great importance. The plot was discovered, and André, the English officer and spy, taken and hanged. Arnold escaped and was given a command in the British army.

16. Campaign against Cornwallis.—Another army and fleet from France came at this juncture to relieve Washington. Meanwhile General Greene was pushing the campaign against Cornwallis so vigorously in the South that after the battle of Eutaw Springs only Charleston and Savannah were left in possession of the British. Washington was about to attack New York, but changed his plan to an attack on Cornwallis.

17. Surrender of Cornwallis.—He secretly left New York and joined the new French force under Rochambeau. Cornwallis had taken up his position on the peninsula between the James and York rivers. Lafayette, with inferior forces, had been watching him. The French fleet, under De Grasse, entered the Chesapeake Bay and landed reinforcements for Lafayette. In September he was joined by Washington and Rochambeau, and Cornwallis was surrounded at Yorktown. Finding resistance useless, the English general surrendered with all his force (October 17, 1781).

18. Close of the War.—England was weary of the war, and the Commons advised peace. A treaty was arranged at Paris (November 30, 1782). In March, 1783, Congress ratified the action of its commissioners, and on April 19 the end of the war was proclaimed in Washington's camp in Newburg. On November 25 the British evacuated New York and Washington marched in.

15. What did Arnold attempt? What was his success? 16. State the progress of events in the South. On what did Washington resolve? 17. Give an account of the movement against Yorktown. 18. How did the war end?

SECTION II. Louis XVI. and the French Revolution (1774-1789).

19. Condition of France in 1774.—Louis XVI. was only twenty when he succeeded his grandfather on the throne of France. The early acts of his reign were popular. His desire for the happiness of the French people was sincere, but the corruption of the preceding reigns had done its work. The higher classes had lost the moral standing they should have possessed, the poor were in a most wretched condition, and the king was not the man to bring about a reform, however much he might have desired it.

20. Convention of the Notables. (1787).—The ministers chosen by Louis failed to satisfy the people. The reforms they attempted were regarded as infringements on the rights of the privileged classes, and they were compelled to resign. The finances were in a desperate condition, but any attempt to improve them told against the privileged classes. A convention of the “Notables” of France met in 1787 and a scheme for a more equitable system of taxation was laid before them. It was rejected. Necker, the minister of finance, advised an assembly of the States-General, which had not met since 1614.

21. Meeting of the States-General.—The States-General represented all classes of the people. The success of the American colonists reacted on the French, who had so materially contributed to that success. The “Third Estate,” or commons, now felt and asserted their power. They had hitherto been disregarded, the privileged classes alone exercising a voice in legislation. The commons insisted that the majority of votes should control. They gained over some of the clergy and nobility. The result was that they carried their point and called themselves the National Assembly (June 17, 1789).

19. When did Louis XVI. succeed to the throne? What was the condition of France at that time? 20. In what did his ministers fail? Why was the Convention of Notables called? What did Necker advise? 21. Relate what followed.

22. Storming of the Bastile (July 14, 1789).—Bailly was elected president. At the session of June 20 the deputies swore not to separate before giving France a constitution. Louis, growing alarmed, concentrated troops around Paris. This action exasperated the excited populace, who saw their liberties menaced. An outbreak occurred. The people stormed the fortress of the Bastile, where state prisoners were confined. The king yielded to them in everything. The people went with the National Assembly, and the National Assembly followed the most violent of its leaders.

23. Risings in France.—There were massacres in Paris and the provinces, the people rising with their newly found power. On the night of August 4, 1789, a session of the Assembly was held to deliberate on the excesses committed in the provinces. Some justified them as a right protest against the abuses of feudalism. The clerical deputies and the nobles thereupon renounced their feudal rights and privileges. The Assembly moved the suppression of the entire feudal system. The king refused to sign the decree.

24. The King seized.—The royal family was at Versailles. It was resolved to get rid of royalty. The Duke of Orleans, ambitious to supplant his royal relative, was one of the leaders in the movement against him. Calumnies against the king and queen were set afoot. Versailles was besieged by the mob and Louis brought to Paris.

25. Proclamation by the Assembly.—Most of the nobles, seeing what was impending, fled the kingdom. Many members of the Assembly sent in their resignations. Liberty of the person, liberty of conscience, liberty of the press,

22. On what did the deputies determine? What angered the people? The result? 23. What took place in the provinces? What was the Assembly doing meanwhile? 24. What of the seizure of the king? 25. What were proclaimed?

the equality of all citizens, the inviolability of their persons, and their imprescriptible right to resist oppression, were proclaimed. To the king was left no power but that of veto. The legislative power was centred in a single chamber, whose members were to be elected every two years.

26. The Church attacked.—To provide money the church properties were invaded and confiscated. Religious orders were abolished and a civil constitution of the clergy was decreed. Bishops and parish priests were made eligible like civil functionaries. The authority of the pope was rejected. The king reluctantly signed the decree. The Assembly decreed that its clerical members should subscribe to the new constitution. All the bishops save two refused and were expelled from their sees. The greater number of the clergy followed the example of the bishops. In all France only five bishops took the new oath. The “civil” bishops and clergy were installed by force. The pope, Pius VI., condemned their intrusion and the action of the Assembly in this matter. The Assembly retaliated by an open persecution of the Church.

27. Louis a Prisoner.—The king was now a virtual prisoner in the Tuileries. He fled (June 21, 1791), but was captured and brought back. He was deprived of his functions by a decree of the Assembly and confined in the Tuileries. The political clubs demanded his deposition, but a show of vigor on the part of the authorities led to a momentary triumph. The constitution was revised and the king sanctioned the revision (September, 1791).

SECTION III. Louis XVI. and the Legislative Assembly (1791-1792).

28. Ascendancy of the Girondists.—The Assembly changed its name but not its character, the more violent always

How was the power divided between the king and the Assembly? 26. Why was the Church attacked? State the various steps taken against the Church. 27. What happened to Louis meanwhile? When was the constitution revised?

ruling. It split up into two parties, the Constitutionalists and the Girondists. The latter were more ably led. They submitted a decree subjecting to the severest penalties the priests who refused to take the oath of the civil constitution of the clergy, and another, levelled at the nobles, pronouncing sentence of death on every emigrant who did not return to France before 1791. The king refused to sign the decrees. The Girondists overthrew his ministry, and he was obliged to form a new one from their ranks.

29. War with Austria.—The king was compelled to declare war against Austria for having harbored French refugees. The opening of the campaign was disastrous for France. Blame was laid on the queen and the mob rose in Paris. Louis refused to sanction the expulsion of all faithful priests and the establishment of a citizen army in Paris. The Girondists sought to depose the king.

30. Louis XVI. deposed.—Foreign events favored them. The powers, alarmed at the progress of the Revolution, leagued against France and invaded it. Vergniaud, the most eloquent of the Girondists, rose in the Assembly and accused the king and queen of favoring Austria. Petitions for the deposition of the king poured in to the Assembly. The palace was besieged (August 10), the king seized and taken to the Assembly. Under his own eyes his deposition was voted, and he was confined in the Temple with his queen and the royal family.

31. Paris Commune.—The Commune of Paris now invaded the legislative power and set its leaders, Robespierre, Danton, and Marat, at the head of affairs. The priests and nobles were massacred. The invading Prussians were checked by Kellermann at Valmy and compelled

28. How was the Assembly ruled? Into what parties did it split? Which became the ruling party? What was Louis obliged to do? 29. What of the war with Austria? 30. Why was Louis deposed? 31. Tell of the Paris Commune.

to recross the border. The Assembly dissolved and yielded to the National Convention.

32. Arraignment and Execution of Louis XVI.—The National Convention decreed the abolition of royalty and establishment of a French Republic. The foreign invasion was defeated. The faction called “the Mountain,” the more violent, gained the ascendancy over the Girondists. On December 11, 1792, the king was summoned before the Convention to answer certain charges against him. His bearing and responses were equally admirable. The trial was a mockery, and sentence of death was pronounced on “Louis Capet.” The unjust sentence was carried into execution on January 21, 1793.

CHAPTER III.

EUROPE IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.

EUROPE in the eighteenth century was troubled by three wars of succession. France and England were rivals in their colonies. Austria and Prussia were rivals in Germany. There was a general decay of public morals in Europe.

1. General Character of the Century.—The eighteenth century was marked by the advance of infidelity in Europe, favored by the statesmen of the time. They resented the papal claim to spiritual authority, and in resisting this undermined the public faith in all authority save that of force. Catholic and Protestant sovereigns alike lent their aid to the movement. A systematic attack on the spiritual head of the Catholic Church was made on all sides.

Who checked the Prussians? To what did the Assembly yield? 32. What did the National Convention decree? Give an account of the trial and execution of Louis XVI. 1. Describe the general character of the eighteenth century.

SECTION I. Joseph II. of Austria (1780-1790).

2. Josephism.—Maria Theresa died in 1780 and left the throne to her son, Joseph II., who wished to rule and regulate the Church as well as the state. He was a narrow-minded man, who wished to reform everything and everybody on his own plan. The result was that he set his empire in an uproar, while his ambition to pose as a great warrior brought severe disasters on Austria. He abolished serfdom and made German the official language in all his empire. Vienna was made the centre of a government consisting of divers nationalities, and the administration was consigned to a set of arbitrary functionaries.

3. Joseph's Reforms in the Church.—Communication with Rome, without royal assent, was forbidden to the bishops. The ritual was altered to suit the emperor. The religious orders were suppressed. An edict of religious toleration was issued, though the Catholic Church was being persecuted. Pius VI. visited the emperor at Vienna and vainly warned him of the disasters he was inviting.

4. Revolts; Failure.—Joseph went on with his reforms and the people rose against them. There were bloody revolts in various parts of the empire, which were bloodily suppressed. Unsuccessful on all sides, against the Turks and against Frederick of Prussia, he withdrew his reforms a short time before his death (February, 1790).

SECTION II. Rise of Prussia under Frederick II.

5. Frederick's Policy.—We have seen the advances made by Prussia under Frederick II. His genius lifted that country into successful rivalry with Austria and placed it among the great powers of Europe. After the Seven Years' War Frederick devoted himself to the internal

2. Who succeeded Maria Theresa? What did he desire? What was the result of his ambition? 3. Describe Joseph's interference with the Church. What action did Pius VI. take? 4. What was the result of Joseph's plans?

affairs of his kingdom. By rigid economy he restored the finances and greatly helped trade and manufactures. Religion and the press were free in his dominions.

6. The Work of Frederick the Great.—Frederick conceived the partition of Poland (1772), in which Catherine of Russia and Maria Theresa had a share. He prevented Joseph II. from acquiring the Bavarian succession. At his accession his subjects numbered about two millions and a quarter. At his death they were over six millions. He left a surplus in the treasury of fifty million dollars, an army of two hundred and twenty thousand men, a prosperous people, and a territory enlarged by about thirty thousand square miles (1786).

SECTION III. Russia under Catherine II. (1762-1796).

7. Catherine proclaimed Empress.—After the death of Peter the Great Russia became a prey to revolution. In less than forty years six sovereigns were crowned and dethroned. Elizabeth, daughter of Peter the Great, was placed on the throne in 1741. She affianced her son Peter to Catherine, daughter of the governor of Stettin, who afterwards became Prince of Anhalt-Zerbst. Catherine was a woman of great ambition, extraordinary qualities, and extremely lax morals. On the accession of her husband to the throne (1762) a conspiracy was set on foot to dispossess him. The guards hailed Catherine as empress. Peter was imprisoned and soon after strangled. Thenceforward Catherine reigned alone.

8. Partitions of Poland.—On the death of Augustus III. (1763) Catherine's influence secured the Polish election to one of her favorites, Stanislas Poniatowski. The Poles indignantly moved for a reform of the constitution, and

5. Describe Frederick's policy. What success crowned his efforts? 6. For what is he responsible? In what condition did he leave his kingdom? 7. What did Russia suffer after the death of Peter? How did Catherine gain power?

formed the Confederation of Bar (1768), to guarantee their religious and political liberties. Then came about, in conjunction with Frederick the Great and Maria Theresa, the first partition of Poland. The Poles were overwhelmed by Catherine's armies, and Polish Livonia was annexed to Russia. Frederick received almost the whole of what is now East Prussia, and Austria took Galicia (1772). Another revolt of the Poles only led to a new invasion and a new partition between Russia and Prussia (1793). A third uprising under Kosciuszko brought on a final division and the disappearance of Poland as a state.

9. Reverses of the Turks.—The Sultan of Turkey had leagued with the Poles against Catherine. They were beaten on the Pruth and the Kagul (1770), and their fleet was destroyed by the Russians off Scio. The sultan sued for peace, which was arranged at Kutchuck-Kainardji (1774). The protectorate of the Danubian provinces was given over to Catherine, the town of Azof, and the liberty of navigating the Black Sea. The Crimea was made independent, and the fortress of Sebastopol was founded (1784). In the following year Catherine made a triumphal progress through the southern provinces of her empire. Joseph II. met her at Kherson, and an alliance was made against the Turks.

10. Triumphs and Death of Catherine.—The war, disastrous for Austria, added new conquests to Russia, and the peace of Jassy (1792) gave to Russia all the country between the Bug and Dniester. Gustavus III. of Sweden had made common cause with the Turk and threatened St. Petersburg, but peace was signed with him in 1790. He put an end to the factions among the nobles, and was contemplating a coalition for the release and restora-

8. Who became King of Poland? What followed? Describe the first partition. The second. The final partition. 9. What reverses fell on the Turks? Re-count the triumphs of Catherine. 10. What did the King of Sweden accomplish?

tion of Louis XVI. when he was shot by a conspirator at Stockholm (1792). Catherine died a year after annexing Courland to Russia, and while engaged in a war with Persia. She left a greatly enlarged empire to her son and successor, Paul (1796).

SECTION IV. Events in Portugal, Spain, and Italy.

11. Portugal under the Braganzas.—The royal house of Braganza shook off the Spanish yoke in 1640, the people electing John, Duke of Braganza, their king. A war with Spain followed, which ended in the decisive victory of the Portuguese at Montesclaros (1665). Portugal was placed under the protection of England, much to the detriment of its own commerce. The Spanish claim to the throne was finally abandoned in 1737.

12. Pombal.—On the accession of Joseph I., Sebastian de Carvalho, afterwards Marquis of Pombal, was made chief minister (1756). He was a man of great ability, but indoctrinated in the favorite tenets of the time. He did much to develop the resources of the country and strengthened the army and navy. But his administration is chiefly memorable for his persecution of the Jesuits. He destroyed their flourishing missions in Paraguay and set on foot all sorts of calumnies against them.

13. Expulsion of the Jesuits (1759).—The nobles also became objects of his enmity. An attempt on the life of the king gave the crafty minister the plausible pretext he was seeking. The Jesuits and nobles were accused of complicity in the plot. Several of the nobles were condemned to death, and the Jesuits were banished from all the Portuguese dominions (1759). Numbers of them were cast into prison, and Father Malagrida, the provincial, a

In what condition did Catherine leave Russia? 11. Give the origin of the Portuguese kingdom. Under whose protection was Portugal placed? 12. Who became her chief minister? 13. Give an account of the expulsion of the Jesuits.

most venerable and holy man, was burned in the public square in Lisbon.

14. On the death of Joseph I. (1777) and accession of Dona Maria the people clamored for the dismissal and punishment of Pombal. He was removed from power and died in retirement (1782).

15. **Charles III. (1759-1788) and D'Aranda.**—On the death of Ferdinand VI. Don Carlos was called from the throne of the Two Sicilies and the duchies of Parma and Piacenza to ascend the Spanish throne. He chose for minister D'Aranda, who, like his friends Choiseul and Pombal, was an admirer of the new philosophic school of Voltaire. Choiseul had brought about an alliance of the Bourbon families, and this was used as a weapon of attack against the Jesuits.

16. **Expulsion of the Jesuits from Spain.**—A revolt in Madrid (1766) that compelled the king to fly gave D'Aranda an excuse. It was hinted that the Jesuits were at the bottom of it; but the king refused to enter on a persecution of the society. Afterwards a forged letter, questioning the king's legitimacy and purporting to come from Father Ricci, general of the society, was shown the king. It had its effect. On April 2, 1767, a royal despatch to all the authorities in Spain and America instructed them to conduct the fathers within their jurisdiction to the nearest port and place them on board ship. Six thousand Jesuits were thus at a blow deprived of their rights, liberties, and property. The same outrage was perpetrated in the kingdom of Naples and the duchy of Parma (1767-1768).

17. **Papal Protest.**—Pope Clement XIII., as suzerain of Parma, pronounced against the act and excommunicated

14. What took place on the death of the king? 15. Who succeeded Ferdinand VI. of Spain? What is said of his minister? 16. How was D'Aranda enabled to begin his attack on the Jesuits? What led to their expulsion from Spain?

the government, declaring the duke to have forfeited his right to the duchy. In revenge Choiseul seized on Avignon, which had remained in the hands of the popes. The papal condemnation was a great blow to the ministers, who represented that in assailing the Jesuits they were upholding the cause of religion.

18. General Suppression of the Jesuits (1773).—They now demanded the formal abolition of the society; and the accession of Clement XIV. (1769), an aged Franciscan, who was said to be pledged beforehand to their suppression, favored the ministers' schemes. A brief was at last wrung from the aged pontiff for the suppression of the society all over the world (July 21, 1773).

19. Chief Events of the Century.—The eighteenth century witnessed the decline of the Turkish power in Europe and the disappearance of Poland as a state; the rise and consolidation of Russia and Prussia; the conquest of India by Great Britain; the revolt of the people against royalty and the privileged classes in France, and the overthrow there of the entire feudal system; the revolt of the English colonies, save Canada, in North America, and their formation into the republic of the United States. The century witnessed also the spread of unbelief among the educated classes, and a conspiracy among monarchs and statesmen against the rights of the Holy See, which developed into a general attack on the Christian religion.

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17. What action did Pope Clement XIII. take? How did Choiseul retaliate?
18. How was the suppression of the Jesuits brought about? 19. What were the chief events in the Old World during the century? In America?

FIFTH EPOCH.

FROM THE BEGINNING OF THE FRENCH REVOLUTION TO THE
PEACE OF PARIS (1792-1815).

THE fifth epoch comprises the French Revolution and the attempts to establish a popular form of government in France, with the coalitions of the European powers against that government. The republic is overthrown by Napoleon Bonaparte and a military empire established, against which the coalitions continue.

CHAPTER I.

THE FIRST FRENCH REPUBLIC.

THE French Republic, which was proclaimed at the opening of the Convention, passed through three phases of government: the Convention, the Directory, and the Consulate.

SECTION I. The Convention after the Execution of Louis XVI. (1793-1795).

1. Coalition against the Republic.—The execution of Louis XVI. and the proclamation of a new order of government in France shocked and alarmed all Europe. The republic proclaimed “the rights of man,” and monarchs trembled for their thrones. Pitt organized a coalition of the powers against the republic, Switzerland, Venice, Sweden, and Denmark alone standing aloof. The plan of the Allies was to march on Paris and set Louis’ son, then a prisoner in the Temple, on the throne.

2. Invasion of France by the allied Powers.—The Aus-

What does the fifth epoch comprise? What phases did the government of France undergo? 1. How did the French excesses affect Europe? What did the republic proclaim? What coalition was made against France?

trians advanced into Belgium and defeated Dumouriez at Neerwinden. Dumouriez was a partisan of the Duke of Orleans. His loyalty to the republic being suspected, an order was given for his arrest. He arrested the commissioners, but, having lost the confidence of his troops, fled with the Duke of Orleans to the Austrian camp (April, 1793).

SECTION II. The Reign of Terror.

3. The Committee of Safety.—France, threatened by invasion on all sides, was under a terrorism at home. Men knew not whom to trust. The general of the republic had gone over to the Austrians. A revolutionary tribunal was set up to judge without appeal all Frenchmen who were thought guilty of attempts against the republic. A Committee of Public Safety, consisting of nine members, was established and entrusted with dictatorial power.

4. Anarchy in France.—Various factions were contending for the mastery. The Jacobins, who were the more violent, gained the upper hand, and the leading Girondists were imprisoned. A new constitution was drawn up. It declared insurrection to be the most sacred of rights and indispensable of duties. It was inaugurated by a revolting pagan ceremonial.

5. Robespierre and Marat.—Terrible excesses were committed in the name of law all over France, which was literally ruled by the mob. In Paris Robespierre was insinuating himself into the chief power. His associate, Marat, was slain by Charlotte Corday, a Girondist girl. She was executed, and the death of Marat gave his associates excuse for fresh excesses.

6. Assignats.—A general enrolment of all Frenchmen

2. Who invaded France? Who fled to the Austrian camp? 3. What tribunal was set up in France? To whom was dictatorial power entrusted? 4. What factions contended for the mastery? The result? 5. Who led the Jacobins?

was decreed. Funds were raised by forcing a loan from the rich and by the issue of paper money, called *assignats*. Plenary power was given to the Committee of Public Safety, and the government was decreed revolutionary until the conclusion of peace.

7. Royalist Risings.—Vendée rose for the restoration of the monarchy, and several towns and departments took up arms against the Convention. Lyons underwent a siege, and was subjected to a terrible vengeance when at last compelled to surrender. Toulon proclaimed Louis XVII.; and in the siege of that city the young Corsican artillery officer, Napoleon Bonaparte, first came into prominence. When Toulon fell another fearful vengeance was taken on the citizens (December, 1793).

8. Defeat of the Vendéans.—The rising in Vendée proved more formidable under the leadership of Jacques Cathelineau, a peasant. He roused the peasantry against the draft, and several of the Vendéan gentry joined the movement. Saumur was taken and a junction was effected with the Chouans of Brittany, who had also risen. Cathelineau was made generalissimo of the “Grand Royal and Catholic Army.” Angers was taken, but Nantes defied all their attacks, and in besieging it Cathelineau fell (June, 1793). His death was a fatal blow to his cause. Disasters speedily followed. The armies of the republic, under Kellermann, Marceau, and Kleber, came up, and, defeating the Vendéans at Angers and Mans, crushed them near Savenay.

9. Execution of Marie Antoinette.—All this time the royal family was in prison. The queen, Marie Antoinette, daughter of Maria Theresa, was now summoned before the Convention, subjected to a mock trial, condemned, and exe-

6. How were funds obtained? 7. Give an account of the royalist risings. What happened at Lyons? At Toulon? 8. What is said of the Vendéan leader? How was the movement crushed? 9. Where was the queen meanwhile?

cuted (October, 1793). The Girondists, who had organized the Revolution, were the next victims. The Duke of Orleans, who had voted the death of the king, was also condemned and executed for having aspired to sovereignty.

10. The Allies defeated.—The greed and selfishness of the allied powers set all Frenchmen against them and caused dissensions among the powers themselves. The republic put forth extraordinary exertions and sent its ragged and half-disciplined armies against united Europe. Meeting at first with severe reverses, they yet succeeded in driving the Allies across the Rhine, and France was free of invasion.

11. Pillage of the Churches.—At home France was still the prey of factions. The worst men were in power and terror reigned. Orders were given to pillage all the churches, and the orders were carried out to the letter. The object was ostensibly to supply the government with funds, but most of the pillage found its way to the pockets of the government officers. The most horrible sacrileges took place; the holiest of ceremonies were travestied in the very churches, which were made the scenes of bacchanalian orgies. The *Goddess of Reason*, in the shape of an infamous woman, was enthroned on the altar of Notre Dame and incense burned before her. Everything took a pagan cast, even the names of the dates and seasons.

12. Triumph of Robespierre.—Robespierre had gradually forced his way to the front by the execution of his rivals. He had pretensions to religion and moved the Convention to recognize the immortality of the soul and the existence of a Supreme Being. A public feast was held in honor of the Supreme Being, Robespierre officiating as pontiff. His pretensions brought on him the ridicule of his colleagues,

What was her fate? Who were the next victims? 10. How did the allied powers injure themselves? What success followed the exertions of the French? 11. What was the internal condition of France? 12. What is said of Robespierre?

and to revenge himself on them he had passed the law of the 22d Prairial (June 10, 1794).

13. Wholesale Executions.—This law dispensed with all the ordinary forms of justice, and the prisons were soon glutted with persons of all ages and conditions. They were led in troops to the scaffold. One day were executed forty-five members of the parliament of Paris; another day thirty-two members of the parliament of Toulouse; again an entire community of Carmelite nuns, and so on. Most of the great towns witnessed similar scenes.

14. Fall of Robespierre.—Robespierre was now (1794) at the height of his power, but he had jealous factions plotting secretly against him. Henriot, chief of the Paris militia, offered to massacre all his adversaries while assembled in convention, but Robespierre hesitated. After having absented himself for some time from the Convention he again re-entered it, only to find that it would not listen to him. He was arrested with his brother and associates and hurried off to prison. On their way they were met and delivered by Henriot. The Convention decreed them out-laws. They were seized by the troops of the Convention, again imprisoned, and executed on July 28, 1794.

15. Success of the Republican Arms.—The armies of the republic were continuing their successes. The Duke of Coburg, supported by Generals Clerfayt and Beaulieu, marched on Paris. Pichegru and Jourdan, the Republican generals, let him pass. Pichegru fell upon Clerfayt and crushed him, while Jourdan beat Beaulieu. The Duke of Coburg, hastening to Beaulieu's assistance, suffered a severe defeat at Fleurus; and Belgium lay open to the French armies.

16. Massacre at Quiberon.—Coburg was driven back to

How did he revenge himself on his enemies? 13. What followed the passage of this law? 14. Give an account of the fall of Robespierre. 15. Recount the successes of Pichegru and Jourdan. What was the effect of these victories?

Germany by Jourdan, who swept along the left bank of the Rhine, while Pichegru possessed himself of the fortresses on the Holland frontiers (1794-1795). A final attempt on the part of the royalists, favored by England, met with a disastrous defeat at Quiberon, and was followed by a cruel massacre of the prisoners who had capitulated. About the same time died the only son of Louis XVI., a victim of the brutal treatment he had received at the hands of his jailer. His uncle, the Count of Provence, assumed the title of king under the name of Louis XVIII. (1795).

17. The Coalition broken.—The Allies were weary of the invasion. Prussia made a private peace with the republic, surrendering its possessions on the left bank of the Rhine; Spain followed; Holland, erected into the Batavian Republic, became an ally of France; Austria remained on the defensive; but Pitt resolved on continuing the struggle.

18. Insurrection in Paris—After the death of Robespierre the Convention abolished the most odious of the revolutionary laws, but the factions still raged. A formidable insurrection broke out in Paris (May 20, 1795), but was put down. The six chief conspirators, being condemned to death, stabbed themselves in presence of their judges.

19. The Convention yields to the Directory.—France was weary of the Convention, and that body, before dissolving, presented the country with a new constitution, the third in six years. The executive power was confided to a Directory of five members. A decree constituting the members of the Convention a necessary part of the legislative body provoked great opposition. Paris rose and marched to besiege the Convention, who entrusted their defence to

16. What events led to the massacre of Quiberon? What became of Louis' only son? 17. How was the coalition against France broken? 18. What followed the death of Robespierre? 19. What led to the establishment of the Directory?

Barras. Barras called to his assistance Napoleon Bonaparte, who planted his artillery so as to sweep all the avenues leading to the Convention. The sections were defeated (October 5, 1795) and disarmed. The Directory was installed and the members of the Convention became members of the new legislative body.

SECTION III. The Directory (1795-1799).

20. The Directory was composed of five members, and was assisted by two councils, called the Ancients and Five Hundred. Rivalries soon broke out among the various legislative bodies.

21. Bonaparte's first Campaign in Italy (April, 1796).—As a reward for his services to the Convention the young Napoleon Bonaparte was appointed to the command of the army contending against the Austrians in Italy. General Schérer had defeated the Austrians and Piedmontese at Loano, but failed to follow up his victory. On arriving at the scene of battle Napoleon at once showed his mastery. The Austrians guarded the passes into Lombardy, the Sardinians those of Piedmont. Bonaparte had about thirty thousand men opposed to twice that number. Advancing suddenly between the Alps and the Apennines, he surprised and routed the Austrians at Montenotte. The routed forces concentrated at Dego, but were gradually forced back into Lombardy.

22. The Sardinians defeated.—The Sardinians, beaten by Augereau and cut off from their allies, hastened to cover their capital, Turin. Bonaparte followed fast and pushed them back to its very walls. As a price of peace the Sardinian king surrendered his fortresses and gave up his

On whom did Barras call for assistance? What became of the Convention?
20. Give the composition of the Directory. 21. How was Bonaparte rewarded for his services? What was the condition of affairs in Northern Italy?

rights over Savoy and Nice. Thus after the work of a few days Italy trembled at the conqueror.

23. Conquest of Lombardy.—Freed from the Piedmontese, Bonaparte turned again on the Austrians, and by wonderful daring defeated the flower of their forces at the bridge of Lodi (May, 1796). This opened the way into Lombardy, and he entered Milan in triumph. He immediately established republican institutions in Lombardy and exacted a sum of twenty millions of francs. The people revolted at the terms, and a formidable insurrection broke out at Pavia, which was put down with a bloody and merciless hand. Leaving terror behind him, Bonaparte advanced once more against the Austrians and surprised them at the passage of the Mincio. Driving them back to Trent, he remained master of Lombardy.

24. Further Conquests.—The conqueror compelled the republic of Venice to cede its strong places and feed his armies. The Duke of Modena was deposed. The Duke of Parma and the King of Naples only escaped a like fate at the cost of enormous contributions. Pope Pius VI., who was especially hated by the Directory, was mulcted twenty-one million francs and compelled to surrender the legations of Bologna and Ferrara.

25. Jourdan and Moreau in Germany (1796).—While Bonaparte was thus sweeping all before him in Italy, Moreau, who had succeeded Pichegru, crossed the Rhine and penetrated into Bavaria, while Jourdan advanced towards Bohemia. Their plan was to force the mountains of the Tyrol, and, uniting with the army of Italy, march on Vienna.

26. Defeat of Jourdan.—The young Archduke Charles, brother of the Emperor Francis II., commanded the Aus-

22. What befell the Sardinians? 23. What happened at Lodi? How did Bonaparte act in Lombardy? What followed? 24. How did Bonaparte treat the Italian principalities? 25. What of Jourdan and Moreau?

trians. He fell back slowly before the superior forces of the enemy, drawing them after him. His strategy at last succeeded in separating them so widely that they were no longer able to act in concert. Suddenly leaving Moreau, Charles fell upon Jourdan, surprised and defeated him near Bamberg, and routed his forces. The people rose as the French passed, and harassed them in every way in revenge for the excesses they had committed. Jourdan at last succeeded in reaching the left bank of the Rhine with a mere remnant of his force.

27. Moreau's Retreat.—This defeat ruined the concerted movement. Moreau was now exposed and threatened to be surrounded. He was three hundred miles from France and in the midst of a hostile people. He determined to march back, and with infinite strategy and skill succeeded in doing so, bringing up his forces intact at Huningue. Still, the fruit of the conquests of three months was thus lost in fifteen days.

28. Siege of Mantua.—On the other hand, Bonaparte had laid siege to Mantua, the key of Italy (August, 1796). The Austrians, under Wurmser, made a supreme effort to save it. At the approach of Wurmser Bonaparte hastily abandoned the siege, and "Italy is lost to the French" was the cry through the country. They mistook their man. He had only withdrawn to concentrate his forces. He fell upon Wurmser's lieutenant and defeated him at Lonato. A few hours later he was nearly surprised by the Austrians, but, escaping and uniting with Augereau, he defeated Wurmser at Castiglione, and the siege of Mantua was resumed.

29. The Austrians cross the Adige.—The indomitable Wurmser assembled a new army at Trent, and, crossing

26. How did the Archduke Charles act? 27. Describe Moreau's retreat. 28. What happened at Mantua? Who was opposed to Bonaparte? 29. Describe the struggle between Bonaparte and Wurmser.

Venetian territory, sought to approach Mantua by the lower Adige. Bonaparte followed and beat him at Bassano (September, 1796). Wurmser's scattered forces fled to Mantua. The negligence of a French officer sent to intercept him allowed the Austrian general to cross the Adige at Legnano. Piercing the lines of the besieging army, he entered Mantua, with Bonaparte hot on his heels.

30. Battle of Arcola.—Another Austrian army was sent, under Alvinczy, to relieve the besieged city. Bonaparte occupied Verona and Alvinczy took up his position on the heights of Caldiero overlooking the city. Bonaparte attempted to dislodge him, but was repulsed and compelled to re-enter Verona. In a succeeding combat five French generals fell, and disaster seemed to have fallen on the French arms. Attempting to extricate himself from his position, Bonaparte, after desperate fighting, suffered another repulse in trying to carry the bridge of Arcola (November, 1796). Two days of fighting followed, when the Austrians, completely broken up, retreated, leaving Bonaparte conqueror of the bloodiest field he had yet fought in Italy.

31. Battle of Rivoli and Fall of Mantua.—Still Wurmser held Mantua. Alvinczy, recruiting, marched from Trent with a fourth army to his relief. Descending the left bank of the Adige, he met the French drawn up on the plateau of Rivoli. His attack was hopelessly repulsed and Bonaparte hastened back to Mantua. One of Alvinczy's lieutenants had already reached the suburbs of the city with relief, and Wurmser made a sortie to join him. The French faced both. Wurmser was driven back and the relieving forces compelled to surrender. Mantua, consumed

30. Who now came on the scene? What happened at Verona and Arcola? What was the final result of the fighting? 31. Describe the battle of Rivoli and the fall of Mantua.

by famine, capitulated a few days later, and the French were masters of all northeastern Italy (January, 1797). By order of the Directory Bonaparte then invaded the States of the Church and forced Pius VI. to sign the treaty of Tolentino. The pope was made to pay thirty-one million francs and cede Ancona and others of his possessions.

32. Bonaparte marches on Vienna.—Bonaparte, having received reinforcements, now set out for Vienna. As he entered Friuli he was opposed by the Archduke Charles with inferior forces. The Austrians were driven back from post to post until within thirty leagues of Vienna. The emperor then sought an armistice, which was signed at Leoben (April, 1797). The French themselves needed peace. Bonaparte, though a conqueror, held a very dangerous position. An Austrian army was following in his rear and the Tyrol had risen against him. Venice also rose, and in revenge for its suffering massacred the French sick and wounded left within its walls and joined the Austrians. Bonaparte wreaked a terrible vengeance on the Venetians. Then, without waiting for the Directory, who had ordered Hoche and Moreau to march straight on Vienna, he ended the war himself by the treaty of Campo-Formio, which put an end to the first European coalition against France.

33. Treaty of Campo-Formio (1797).—By the terms of this treaty Francis II. ceded to France Belgium and the territory along the left bank of the Rhine, as well as his rights over Lombardy. He recognized the independence of the Cisalpine Republic which Bonaparte had formed out of the possessions taken from Austria, the Duke of Modena, and the pope. The Venetian states were ceded to the emperor, with the exception of the Ionian Islands, which France retained. A congress assembled at Rastadt

How did the Directory treat the pope? 32. What new expedition did Bonaparte undertake? What happened at Venice? Why did Bonaparte make peace? 33. Give the terms of the treaty of Campo-Formio.

was to regulate the indemnities to the dispossessed princes (October 17, 1797).

34. Coup d'État.—France was now victorious over all her foreign enemies, but continued to be rent at home. There was contention between the Directory and the rival Chambers. The Directory had the executive power and exercised it. By order of the Directory, on September 4, 1797 (18th Fructidor), General Augereau entered Paris by night and seized upon all the positions of importance. The elections of the deputies opposed to the Directory were declared null, and the chief members, General Pichegru among the number, were exiled to French Guiana.

35. Faith in the Directory destroyed.—This action destroyed public faith in the Directory. There were many causes of grave complaint against it: peculation, avowed atheism, and open immorality. Its foreign policy disturbed Europe. It brought on a revolution in Rome. Berthier, the French general, entered the city at the head of an army, proclaimed a Roman republic, and imprisoned Pope Pius VI. (February, 1798). The pope was dragged a captive into France and died of his sufferings at Valence (1799). In the following year his successor, Pius VII., was elected at Venice.

36. Europe again alarmed.—The Directory also created a revolution and new Helvetian Republic in Switzerland, and took from it the cities of Mühlhausen, Geneva, and Porrentruy (1798). A few days later a French army entered Naples and proclaimed there the Parthenopian Republic. Europe was again alarmed.

37. England alone had refused to sign the peace. An immense army assembled in the north and the command was given to Bonaparte. Ostensible preparations were

34. What happened in France meanwhile? Tell of the coup d'état. 35. What resulted from the coup d'état? What befell Pius VI.? 36. Describe events in Switzerland and Naples. 37. What action did England take?

made for the invasion of England; but Bonaparte's idea was to strike it in the East by conquering Egypt, the commercial market between Europe and Asia, thus destroying English ascendancy in the East and crushing its rising power in India.

38. Campaign in Egypt (1798).—Bonaparte suddenly left camp, assembled thirty-six thousand of his chosen troops, and with a large fleet embarked for Egypt (May, 1798). Pausing on the way at Malta, he treacherously took that strong fortress from the Knights of St. John, whose guest he was, pillaged it, and handed it over to the republic.

39. Battle of the Pyramids.—Proceeding to Egypt, he landed near Alexandria, occupied the city, and marched on Cairo. He was vigorously opposed by the Mamelukes, who held the country under the Turkish sultan. As he drew near Cairo the whole force of the Mamelukes assembled to oppose him under shadow of the Pyramids. After a brave defence the Mamelukes were routed and Cairo fell (July 21, 1798).

40. Victory of Nelson.—The victory was neutralized, however, by Nelson, the English admiral, who had followed the French fleet and destroyed it at the mouth of the Nile (August 1, 1798). Bonaparte was thus left without the means of returning to Europe. He set to work to conquer the country. Sending the gallant Desaix to pursue the Mamelukes in Upper Egypt, he himself fortified the mouths of the Nile and occupied the strongholds of the country. He tried to win over the people by setting himself up as the "favorite of Allah," but failed; and a formidable insurrection breaking out in Cairo was quelled with great severity.

41. Expedition into Syria (1799).—The sultan declared

How did Bonaparte's Egyptian expedition originate? 38. What of Malta? 39. Describe the battle of the Pyramids. 40. How was Bonaparte's victory neutralized? Sketch his course in Egypt.

war against the republic. Bonaparte invaded Syria, hoping to gain over all the Christians of the East and overthrow the empire of Constantinople and India—a project that, as he said, would have changed the face of the globe. He was successful at the beginning, but finding himself overloaded with prisoners, and fearful of letting them escape, he barbarously ordered their massacre at Jaffa. The massacre brought on a pestilence in his own army.

42. Siege of St. John of Acre.—In besieging St. John of Acre he was met by an invincible resistance, the English fleet materially aiding the defence. An army of the sultan crossed the Jordan, and Kleber, who was sent to oppose it with greatly inferior forces, would have been surrounded had not Bonaparte hastened to his relief. Acre was at last abandoned and Bonaparte returned, defeated, into Egypt.

43. Second European Coalition (1799).—In Egypt he learned that France was given over to anarchy. Leaving the command of the army to Kleber, he hastily returned to France, eluding the English admiral. After Nelson's victory at Aboukir and Bonaparte's imprisonment, as it was considered, in Egypt, England was enabled to form a new coalition against the republic. It consisted of England, Russia, Austria, Portugal, and Sicily.

44. The French were already beaten in Italy when Suvaroff, the Russian general, famous for his exploits against the Poles and Turks, invaded the country. Moreau and Macdonald were defeated, and in a short time Genoa, held by Macdonald, was all that remained of the French conquests in Italy. Suvaroff now quarrelled with the Austrians, was beaten by Massena at Zurich, and compelled to return to Russia.

41. Describe the Syrian campaign. 42. Describe the siege of Acre. 43. Why did Bonaparte return to France? What new coalition was formed? 44. Tell of events in Italy.

45. Coup d'État (November 9, 1799).—The Directory had been compelled to succumb to the authority of the two Chambers, who quarrelled among themselves, and France was in a state of anarchy. This was the condition of affairs when Bonaparte again entered Paris (October, 1799). The Ancients were in his favor, and he was given command of the troops in Paris. His opportunity had come, and on November 10, at the head of the generals and soldiers devoted to him, he appeared before the Council and informed them that the time had come to give the republic a more fitting constitution. There was violent opposition and outcry, and Bonaparte faltered. "Turn them out," advised Sieyès, a member of the resigned Directory, and his advice was taken. The grenadiers cleared the Chambers. The Directory was suppressed and a Consulate formed, with Bonaparte, Sieyès, and Roger-Ducos as temporary consuls, charged to give France a new constitution.

SECTION IV. The Consulate (1799-1804).

46. Bonaparte First Consul.—The new constitution invested Bonaparte with the title of First Consul and absolute power. The other two consuls, Cambacérès and Lebrun, chosen by himself, were ministers rather than colleagues. He reorganized the administration of the whole of France, placing each department under a prefect and sub-prefect appointed by himself. Thus he already held the whole power of the state in his hand and the army worshipped him as its chief.

47. Wise Measures of the First Consul.—He now urged the reconciliation of parties, abolished the laws against the French emigrants, suppressed the pagan festival of

45. How was Bonaparte received in Paris? What action did he take? Describe the coup d'état. 46. What power and title were given Bonaparte? How did he use his power?

January 21, and authorized the free exercise of Catholic worship. The change was grateful to an exhausted people as well as to Europe. Bonaparte, anxious to secure the good-will of all, invited Austria and England to make peace. They refused, and he gave them war.

48. Campaign of 1800.—Moreau was sent down the valley of the Danube, while Massena was ordered to guard the Alps. Bonaparte himself secretly collected thirty-five thousand of his best soldiers near Geneva. Placing himself at their head, he set out for the summit of the Great St. Bernard. In five days, by almost superhuman exertions, he succeeded in transporting his army, with all its munitions of war, over heights deemed impassable. Before Europe knew where he was he had fallen like a thunderbolt on Italy and was hastening to Milan. At his summons sixty thousand French poured into the country from various points, while the Austrians were massed against Genoa or passing into Provence.

49. Marengo.—Melas, the Austrian generalissimo, hearing at last of Bonaparte's arrival, endeavored to escape by way of Piacenza. But Lannes was before him on the route and beat his general at Montebello, forcing the Austrians back towards Alessandria, where Melas had concentrated his forces. Here Bonaparte hoped to enmesh him, but Melas, suddenly debouching into the plain of Marengo, surprised the French and scattered the small force opposed to him.

50. Desaix saves the Day.—Bonaparte was beaten and about to retreat when Desaix came up with reinforcements and artillery. "The battle is lost," said Desaix, "but," looking at his watch, "it is only three o'clock. There is time left to win another." The Austrians were

47. What caused the new war? 48. Describe Bonaparte's plan of campaign. What famous passage did Bonaparte make? 49. How were the Austrians taken? 50. Describe the battle of Marengo. Who saved the day?

already on the march through Piacenza when Desaix attacked them and fell mortally wounded at the first onslaught. His death only inflamed his soldiers to vengeance. Kellermann's cavalry cut the Austrians in two by a brilliant charge. Melas was driven back with shattered forces into Alessandria, and, in despair, signed an armistice that surrendered the north of Italy to France.

51. Moreau; Peace of Lunéville (1801).—Meanwhile Moreau was marking his way through Germany by a series of victories. These he completed by a final one at Hohenlinden, in the heart of Bavaria. He advanced to within twenty leagues of Vienna, when Austria, having no more armies to oppose to him, begged for peace. It was signed at Lunéville and restored to France the position she had gained at the treaty of Campo-Formio. Parma and Piedmont were united to France and Elba was taken from the King of Naples.

52. Loss of Egypt.—Bonaparte vainly endeavored to free his army in Egypt. England swept the seas. Kleber held his own till he fell by the hand of an assassin on the day of Marengo. His successor was beaten by the Turks at Alessandria, and, with his troops, was conveyed back to France in English vessels. Egypt was lost to France.

53. Peace of Amiens (1802).—Bonaparte attempted to form a counter-league against England to ensure the freedom of the seas; but the English naval power proved too strong. At the same time the czar, Paul I., an ally and admirer of Bonaparte, fell at the hands of assassins. Left to his own resources, he prepared for the invasion of England, and the mere preparation led to the peace of Amiens (March, 1802), by which France and her allies were left in possession of all their colonies, save the islands of Trinidad

What armistice did Melas sign? 51. What was Moreau doing meanwhile? What was the peace of Lunéville? 52. How was Egypt lost to France? 53. What occasioned the peace of Amiens?

and Ceylon, which fell to England. England restored Malta to the Knights of St. John, and France promised to respect her neighbors' boundaries.

54. The Concordat (1802).—Bonaparte was wise enough to see the necessity of religion in upholding and conserving society. On attaining to power he had hastened to restore Christian worship in France, but he wanted the Church, like all things else, absolutely subject to himself. A *Concordat* was at last agreed upon with the Holy See (1802). The instrument, though productive of good to France, was open to constant dispute between the head of the state and the Church.

55. Bonaparte used the interval of peace to strengthen his power at home and his influence abroad. He had a steadfast enemy in England, who viewed with jealous eye his attempts to restore the French maritime power. She refused to surrender Malta, as agreed, which was the signal for a new outbreak of hostilities.

56. Plots against Bonaparte.—An attempt at this time on the life of the First Consul greatly added to his popularity. It came from the royalists, whom he had won over by indulging them with the belief that he would set Louis XVIII. on the throne. The plots and intrigues against him now led the Consul into a most dastardly act.

57. Murder of the Duke d'Enghien.—The young Duke d'Enghien, a Bourbon prince, the last of the race of Condé, was staying across the frontier at Ettenheim. He was seized at dead of night by a party of dragoons and conveyed to Vincennes. He had no complicity whatever in royalist plots or attempts against the First Consul or the government of France. Nevertheless that same night a military commission, by Bonaparte's orders, went through the form

54. What was the *Concordat* and its effect? 55. What occasioned the new outbreak? 56. What plots were formed against Bonaparte? 57. Describe the murder of the Duke d'Enghien. What followed the murder?

of trial and condemned him to death. He was taken out and shot, refusing to let his eyes be bandaged by his executioners. All France was horror-stricken at the crime. Other royalist executions followed. Moreau, Bonaparte's rival in military prowess, was exiled. Pichegru was found dead in prison, and the power of Bonaparte was supreme.

CHAPTER II.

THE EMPIRE (1804-1815).

THE history of the empire under Napoleon Bonaparte embraces three distinct periods: 1. From his assumption of the crown to the treaty of Tilsit (1804-1807); 2. From that treaty to the war with Russia (1807-1812); 3. Thence to the end of the Hundred Days (1812-1815). From his accession to his downfall the general history of Europe centres around this extraordinary figure.

SECTION I. The Empire to the Treaty of Tilsit (1804-1807).

1. Bonaparte Emperor.—Bonaparte had been moving towards imperialism. It was now within his grasp. The Senate, with the popular consent, declared Napoleon Bonaparte Emperor of the French, with the title of Napoleon I., making the imperial dignity hereditary from male to male in the order of primogeniture (May 18, 1804). To consecrate his title Bonaparte invited the pope to perform the ceremony of coronation at Paris. After much hesitation the pope finally agreed to ratify what was, after all, the will of the French people.

2. The Coronation.—As the pope passed through France the people flocked to welcome him. Napoleon met him at Fontainebleau with great show of filial veneration. At the instance of Pius VII., and moved by the tears of his

How is the history of Bonaparte's empire divided? 1. What title was now bestowed on Bonaparte? How did the title descend? By whom was Bonaparte crowned? 2. Describe the passage of the pope through France.

wife, Josephine, Napoleon reluctantly consented to have the civil contract of marriage ratified by the ceremony of the Church. The coronation followed with great pomp and splendor in the Church of Notre Dame (December 2, 1804).

3. War with England.—Napoleon now prepared to invade England and assembled an immense army at Boulogne. Aided by the Spanish fleet, he decoyed Nelson off to the West Indies and the Channel passage was left open. But Nelson discovered the snare in time to send back warning, and on the return of the French and Spanish fleets they were met by Sir Robert Calder. An indecisive engagement followed, but the passage of Napoleon's army was prevented, and with this ended his scheme of invading England. He then resolved on closing all the ports of Europe against her (1805).

4. Third Coalition (1805).—England, seeing danger of destruction to her commerce, sought a new alliance with Russia and Sweden. The Emperor of Austria and King of Naples were drawn in later. Napoleon, now wholly monarchical, converted the republic he had created in Italy into a kingdom, with himself as king. He next united the Ligurian Republic to the empire.

5. Europe was alarmed at the ambitious designs of such a man. Pitt had returned to the head of affairs in England and set himself the task of destroying Napoleon. He promised subsidies to the coalition, and suddenly an Austrian army of nearly ninety thousand men entered Bavaria, where it awaited reinforcements from Russia.

6. Napoleon invades Austria; Capitulation of Ulm (1805).—Napoleon at once withdrew his army—thenceforth called the *Grand Army*—from Boulogne and launched it upon Germany. He reached the Austrians before the arrival of

To what did Napoleon reluctantly consent? What followed? 3. On what did Napoleon resolve? How was the invasion of England prevented? 4. Describe the third coalition. 5. What action did Pitt take? 6. What did Napoleon do?

the Russians. Sending the right wing under Ney to hold the Austrians at Ulm, the emperor with the left wing crossed the Danube and occupied every road leading from Ulm to Vienna. The Austrian forces were slowly drawn within an iron circle from which escape was hopeless, and their general, Mack, was compelled to capitulate with his entire army and munitions of war (October 20, 1805).

7. Trafalgar.—On the day after this brilliant victory Nelson destroyed the combined Spanish and French fleets at Trafalgar. The victory was dearly purchased by the death of the English admiral, who more than any other had helped to cripple the power of Napoleon. England was now without a rival on the seas.

8. Austerlitz.—The capitulation of Ulm left the valley of the Danube open to Napoleon, and he marched straight on Vienna. Passing through the city and replenishing his stores from it, he followed the Austrian forces northward. The latter succeeded in effecting a junction with the Russians, and the Allies were enabled to oppose a force of one hundred thousand men to Napoleon's eighty thousand.

9. Napoleon feigned retreat and drew them after him until he neared Austerlitz, where he had resolved on giving battle. A vast plateau commanded the centre of the battle-ground, and the Allies, in their confident and eager pursuit, had left only a small force to hold this key of the situation. Napoleon sent his guard to take it. The mistake was seen and the Russian Imperial Guard ordered to retake the position. They were met and destroyed by the Emperor's Old Guard, and the battle virtually ended. The allied emperors took to flight, leaving forty thousand slain or prisoners on the field, with their cannon and baggage (Dec. 2).

10. Treaty of Presburg.—Russia withdrew from the coa-

Describe the movements against the Austrians. 7. What took place on the ocean? 8. What followed the capitulation of Ulm? 9. Give an account of the battle of Austerlitz. State the loss of the Allies.

lition and the Emperor of Austria sued for peace. As its price he was compelled to cede the Venetian states to the kingdom of Italy, Istria and Dalmatia to France, and the Tyrol and Austrian Suabia to the German princes allied to France. Thenceforth the Elector of Bavaria and the Duke of Würtemberg each assumed the title of king, and the Margrave of Baden that of grand duke. They became allied by marriage with Napoleon, whose vassals rather than allies they were. The treaty was signed at Presburg (December 26, 1805). Trafalgar was forgotten in so supreme a triumph, and Pitt died heart-broken, despairing of his country's future.

11. The Federated States and grand Fiefs of the Empire.

—Napoleon now made himself the arbiter of Europe. He abolished the dynasty of Naples, compelled the king, Ferdinand IV., to retire to Sicily, and set his own brother Joseph on the throne. He next converted Holland into a kingdom, which he bestowed on his brother Louis (1806). His sisters, his brother-in-law Murat, and several of his marshals and ministers were awarded various principalities and fiefs, regardless of the wishes or rights of the people over whom they were placed.

12. Confederation of the Rhine.—He induced the kings of Bavaria and Würtemberg and most of the German princes to enter into his new political system. These formed the Confederation of the Rhine, with Napoleon as *Protector*, thus separating themselves from the German Empire. Francis II. renounced the title of Emperor of Germany for that of Emperor of Austria under the name of Francis I. And thus, after a duration of one thousand and six years, fell the empire founded by Charlemagne and reconstituted by Otho the Great (800-1806).

10. What nation withdrew from the coalition? How did Austria purchase peace? What of the German princes? What of Pitt? 11. What changes did Napoleon make in Europe? 12. Tell of the Confederation of the Rhine.

13. Fourth Coalition (1806).—Napoleon next took revenge on the Prussians, because their king, Frederick William III., was about to enter the last coalition when the battle of Austerlitz broke it up. He goaded the Prussians into war by taking from Frederick various principalities and imposing arbitrary conditions upon him. The Prussians, pushed beyond endurance, formed an alliance with England and Russia and bade Napoleon withdraw his troops from Prussian soil. This was the signal for war.

14. Battle of Jena.—Prussia had a splendid army, but it lacked great generals. Napoleon easily outmanœuvred the old Duke of Brunswick, the Prussian commander, and cut him off from Berlin. He retreated by way of Leipzig, leaving Prince Hohenlohe at Jena to watch the French. Hohenlohe was forced to give battle against great odds, and was utterly routed (October 14, 1806). The Duke of Brunswick was intercepted at Auerstadt by Davoust. The Prussians vastly outnumbered the French and a desperate battle ensued. After ten hours' fighting the Prussians were thrown into disorder. Brunswick and his two successors in command fell, and the Prussian army was routed.

15. Napoleon at Berlin; the Continental Blockade (1806).—Napoleon entered Berlin in triumph and divided Prussia into departments. His measures were extremely harsh and engendered a lasting hatred against the French. He here published a decree declaring the British Isles to be in a state of blockade; forbidding all commerce or intercourse with England; and commanding that every Englishman found on the Continent of Europe should be treated as a prisoner of war, and every English vessel sailing from an English port to be a fair prize (November, 1806).

13. Why did Napoleon desire to punish Prussia? What coalition resulted?
14. What led to the battle of Jena? Give the result. 15. What was Napoleon's course at Berlin? Give an account of the Continental blockade.

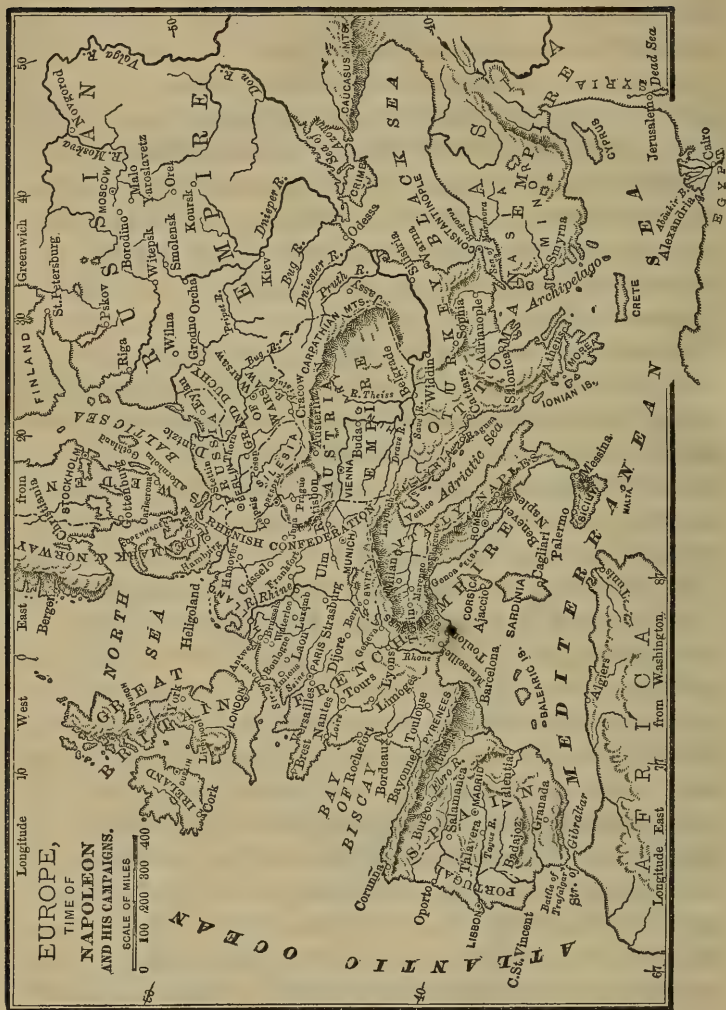
England responded by putting all the ports of France and of the neighboring countries in a state of blockade. In order to enforce his policy on all the Continent Napoleon marched the Grand Army into Russia.

16. Napoleon in Poland.—The King of Prussia now relied solely on the Russians for protection. Napoleon invaded Russia and won the Poles by arming them and giving them vague promises of a restoration of their kingdom. From Warsaw he marched northwards to where the Russian army was encamped on the right of the Vistula. After some indecisive combats he went into winter quarters (December 26, 1806).

17. Battle of Eylau.—Benningesen, the Russian general, under cover of the severe weather, suddenly attacked the French camp and gained some advantages. Napoleon hastened from Warsaw and furiously pursued the Russians, who retreated as far as Eylau, where they made a stand. A most stubborn battle ensued, the victory, if any, being with the Russians (February 8, 1807). Benningesen refused to follow it up, and still retreated in perfect order.

18. Battle of Friedland (June 14); Treaty of Tilsit.—The French returned to winter quarters, where they repulsed a second attack by Benningesen. Ney pursued the Russians to Friedland, which he took, and inflicted a terrible defeat on them. Napoleon then marched on Königsberg, where the King of Prussia had taken refuge, and captured it, his marshal, Lefebvre, taking Dantzic after a famous siege. The King of Prussia, having no longer an asylum in his own dominions, besought the Russian emperor to ask an armistice. Alexander, betrayed by England, who had sent him no aid, and weary of a wasteful war, consented. The two emperors met on a raft in the river

Why did Napoleon march into Russia? 16. How were the Poles won? Where did the French march from Warsaw? 17. What led to the battle of Eylau? Give the result. 18. Outline the events which led to the meeting on the raft.



Niemen and arranged the conditions of peace, which were afterwards ratified at Tilsit (July 8, 1807). The King of Prussia lost nearly all his states, and the emperors divided almost all Europe between them, Alexander taking the north and Napoleon the west and south.

SECTION II. The Empire in its Zenith (1807-1812).

19. Napoleon enforces the Blockade.—England refused to accept the peace of Tilsit. Napoleon then made Russia and Prussia parties to the Continental blockade and attacked all the powers that refused to join in the scheme. Denmark was coerced into joining. The English fleet bombarded Copenhagen, destroyed the arsenal, and captured the Danish fleet. Pomerania and Finland were taken from Gustavus IV., who refused to join Napoleon. He was compelled to abdicate in favor of his uncle, Charles XIII., who, being childless, adopted Napoleon's marshal, Bernadotte, as his heir, and hastened to close his ports against the English.

20. Events in Portugal and Spain.—Portugal held to England, so Napoleon sent an army under Junot to occupy the kingdom and close its ports. Junot lost most of his army of conscripts while marching through Spain, but the prestige of the French arms enabled him to occupy Lisbon with the remnants (November, 1807). The royal house of Braganza set sail for Brazil.

21. Dissension in Spain.—Napoleon next turned to Spain, then ruled by the feeble Charles IV. His minister, Godoy, had furnished the emperor with auxiliaries after the battle of Jena. He also allowed the French troops to pass into Portugal and reinforced Junot. The Spanish people revolted against such humiliation and

State the main features of the peace of Tilsit. 19. What followed England's refusal to accept this peace? 20. What occurred in Portugal? 21. Give an account of affairs in Spain.

turned their affections to Ferdinand, heir to the throne. Between the two parties rivalry and dissension sprang up, thus affording Napoleon an opportunity for interference.

22. Murat in Spain (1808).—Under pretence of reinforcing his army in Portugal Napoleon sent another into Spain under command of Murat, at the same time demanding the Spanish provinces north of the Ebro. He hoped to drive the Spanish royal family to America, as he had already driven that of Portugal. A revolt of the people prevented their flight. Godoy's palace was sacked and Charles compelled to abdicate in favor of his son Ferdinand (1808).

23. Joseph Bonaparte proclaimed King of Spain.—Napoleon strove to reinstate Charles, who would have been a tool in his hands. Murat induced both father and son to appeal to the arbitration of the emperor. He met them at Bayonne, induced them to renounce all their titles, and held them as prisoners in France. Murat was set on the throne of Naples and Joseph Bonaparte called from it to that of Spain.

24. Spanish Insurrection.—The Spaniards rose in Madrid and were massacred by Murat. A general insurrection in the provinces followed. The people rose as one man against the usurping and invading power of the mightiest monarch in Europe. An assembly convened at Madrid organized for the defence of the country.

25. The Capitulation at Baylen.—Joseph Bonaparte was installed in Madrid by the French troops, who were then dispersed into the provinces to put down the insurrection. The French vessels at Cadiz were seized by the Spaniards. Dupont sacked Cordova. Bands of Spaniards followed and harassed him on the march, and finally, sur-

What enabled Napoleon to interfere? 22. What led to the abdication of Charles IV.? 23. How was Joseph Bonaparte made King of Spain? 24. Give an account of the Spanish insurrection. 25. What led to the capitulation at Baylen?

rounding him in the defiles of Baylen, compelled him to capitulate. Eighteen thousand French soldiers laid down their arms and were made prisoners (July, 1808).

26. Wellesley in Portugal.—News of this capitulation spread through Europe and gave the first shock to the belief in the invincibility of the French arms. An English force under Sir Arthur Wellesley had landed in Portugal and compelled Junot to evacuate. Joseph Bonaparte abandoned Madrid and asked to return to Naples.

27. French Reverses.—Saragossa, under the heroic Palafox, held out against the left wing of the Grand Army. The siege cost the French some of their best soldiers, and the defenders only capitulated when the city was in cinders around them (February, 1808). Soult was soon after driven from Portugal by the combined forces of the Spaniards and the English. Joseph was beaten at Talavera, and the Allies might have entered Madrid had not disputes broken out among them. The English retired into Portugal.

28. Napoleon's Spanish Campaign (1808-1809).—Napoleon himself entered Spain at the head of the Grand Army. Defeating the Spaniards at Burgos, he sacked the city and marched on Madrid. Madrid capitulated (December, 1808). Hearing that an English force had crossed the Portuguese frontier and threatened his retreat, he hastened to meet but missed it. He left the country disappointed and mortified, bidding his brother Joseph treat the Spaniards with severity.

29. Fifth Coalition (1809); Battle of Eckmühl.—The Spanish troubles encouraged the formation of a new alliance against France. Austria and England united, and three hundred thousand men, under the Archduke Charles,

26. How was the news of this capitulation received? What changes quickly followed? 27. Give an account of the French reverses. 28. Outline Napoleon's Spanish campaign. 29. What new coalition was formed? What nations united?

suddenly menaced the French at Ratisbon under Davoust. Napoleon marched to his relief, swept away those who opposed him, attacked the archduke at Eckmühl, and drove him across the Danube (April, 1809). Entering Austria, he penetrated to Vienna and followed up the archduke, who had destroyed all the bridges of the Danube.

30. Battle of Essling.—At Lobau, two leagues below Vienna, Napoleon attempted to cross. Charles allowed a portion to pass over and then fell on them. A desperate battle ensued. For thirty hours the French sustained an unequal contest. The village of Essling was taken and retaken five times. Marshal Lannes with sixteen thousand men fell, and the remainder, under Massena, succeeded in regaining the island of Lobau (May, 1809).

31. Battle of Wagram; Treaty of Vienna.—The battle of Essling, as a sequel to the Spanish campaign, produced a great effect on Europe, and Napoleon's star began to wane. He felt that a desperate effort was needed to restore his lost prestige, and he made it. Summoning vast reinforcements to his aid, he succeeded in transporting his entire army across the Danube. Following Charles, he came up with him on the plain commanded by the heights of Wagram. After a terrible battle, in which the French suffered severely, Charles was compelled to retreat with a loss of thirty thousand men. Both sides were now anxious for peace, and it was signed at Vienna. Carinthia, Istria, and Friuli were ceded to France, and a portion of Galicia to Russia and Saxony, the French allies. As a last humiliation Napoleon compelled the emperor to destroy the walls of Vienna.

32. The States of the Church (1809).—Napoleon had constant quarrels with the pope, Pius VII. He now

Where was the archduke defeated? Towards what town did Napoleon move?
30. Describe the battle of Essling. 31. What led to the battle of Wagram? What was the result? What were the terms of the treaty of Vienna?

wished him to annul the marriage of Jerome with Miss Patterson. There were also disputes about ecclesiastical jurisdiction. The pope being invincible in matters touching the rights of the Church, Napoleon sent an army into the Papal States and confiscated the duchies of Benevento and Pontecorvo. The pope refusing to acknowledge Joseph Bonaparte as king of Naples and to adhere to the Continental blockade, General Miollis was ordered to occupy Rome and keep the pope a prisoner in his own capital (1808). In the following year Napoleon decreed the suppression of the pope's temporal power and annexed the States of the Church to the French Empire (May 17, 1809). The Holy Father was carried a prisoner into France and confined at Fontainebleau.

33. The War in Spain (1810-1811).—The peace with Austria gave reinforcements to Joseph, who thought to secure himself in Spain. Granada, Cordova, and Seville fell, but the Spaniards were indomitable. Cadiz held out and was made the headquarters of the Junta, which had taken the cause of independence in its hands. The whole country was in revolt and the French found an active enemy in every Spaniard.

34. Portugal: Wellington at Torres Vedras.—Sir Arthur Wellesley, now Lord Wellington, was in Portugal at the head of an English force. Massena was sent against him and Wellington slowly retreated, leaving a desert behind him. He halted before Lisbon and fortified himself at Torres Vedras, where for six months, with greatly inferior forces, he defied all the efforts of Massena to dislodge him. Massena was at last compelled to retreat (1811).

35. Wellington's Victories in Spain.—Wellington, having worn out the patience and resources of Massena, now pushed

32. What caused quarrels between Napoleon and the pope? Give an account of the events ending with the imprisonment of the pope. 33. State the condition of affairs in Spain. 34. What took place at Torres Vedras? Who retreated?

forward slowly into Spain. He took Badajoz by storm, defeated Marmont at Salamanca and captured the city, took Valladolid, and finally entered Madrid amid the transports of the people. Spain now, with the aid of the English, held in check three hundred thousand of Napoleon's troops.

36. Napoleon and Marie Louise.—Meanwhile the emperor, exalted with his victory at Wagram, only thought of still further extending his empire and enforcing the blockade on all Europe. After the peace of Vienna he repudiated Josephine and sought Marie Louise, the daughter of the Emperor of Austria, in marriage. As the pope refused to annul the marriage with Josephine, an ecclesiastical commission under Cardinal Fesch, Napoleon's uncle, was got together to annul it without either authority or sanction. The emperor was then married to Marie Louise (April 2, 1810), and a child was born (March 20, 1811), to whom was given the title of King of Rome.

37. Discontent in France.—At the close of 1810 the French Empire extended from Gaeta to the Baltic and from the ocean to the St. Gothard. But its strength was more showy than real. The subject peoples hated the French. France itself was weary of war and exhausted. The murder of the Duke d'Enghien, the captivity of Pius VII., the repudiation of Josephine, and the spoliation of the Spanish Bourbons were all unpopular acts, and so many causes of deepening discontent. Finally, the Continental blockade was a grave injury to commerce and reacted on France and all Europe as much as it affected England. At last Russia refused to close her ports any longer, and this was the signal for renewed strife.

35. What was Wellington's next move? Give an account of his progress to Madrid. 36. How did the victory of Wagram affect Napoleon? What did he do? How was his marriage annulled? 37. Outline affairs at close of 1810.

SECTION III. Decadence and Fall of the Empire (1812-1814).

38. Napoleon again invades Russia (1812).—Napoleon assembled the German princes at Dresden, and, uniting their forces with his own, crossed the Niemen (June 12, 1812) at the head of four hundred and twenty thousand men. He again aroused the enthusiasm of the Poles, who flocked to him. The czar, avoiding all general actions, retreated before him, leaving a desert for the French to pass through.

39. Battle of Borodino (September 7, 1812); Napoleon at Moscow.—Napoleon followed, plunging deeper into the desert. Smolensk was stubbornly defended, and when no longer tenable was fired by the Russians (August, 1812). Winter was approaching, but the emperor, hearing that other wings of his army had met with success, pushed on for Moscow, where he determined to winter.

40. At Borodino, within sixty miles of the city, the Russians made a stand under their general, Barclay de Tolly. A most bloody battle ensued. It cost the Russians sixty thousand killed or wounded and the French thirty thousand. The Russians retreated and were followed into Moscow by the French (September 14, 1812). The night after their entry the city was fired in all quarters and they were compelled to evacuate. There was nothing left but to march back (October 18, 1812).

41. Retreat from Moscow.—All along the march they were harassed by the Russians, who compelled them to take the long route over the desert to Smolensk. Soldiers and horses fell by the way and perished of cold and hunger. When the Dnieper was reached there were scarcely fifty thousand left of the splendid army of one hundred and twenty thousand men at whose head Napoleon set

38. Describe the invading forces. What plan did the czar follow? 39. What influenced Napoleon to winter at Moscow? 40 Give an account of the battle of Borodino. What followed the entry into Moscow? 41. Describe the retreat.

out for Moscow, and of these not more than twenty thousand fit to fight.

42. At the Bérésina they were joined by the army of reserve which had been repulsed from the Dwina. Disaster followed disaster. Napoleon hastened on to Paris to levy a new army against a new coalition.

43. Sixth Coalition against Napoleon.—Prussia, Russia, Sweden, and England were the allies. They drove the French before them to the Elbe. Napoleon advanced and beat them at Lutzen (May 2, 1813), and again at Bautzen (May 20 and 21), pursuing them into Silesia. He here learned that his brother Joseph had been beaten by Wellington at Vitoria. Vitoria was followed by other victories and Joseph was driven from Spain. News of Wellington's success gave fresh strength to the coalition.

44. Dresden (August, 1813).—At Austria's instance Napoleon agreed to an armistice; but, as he rejected the advantageous offers, Austria joined the coalition, and more than a million men were now opposed to Napoleon. Three armies, under Schwarzenberg, Blücher, and Bernadotte (who had deserted the emperor), marched against the French. Napoleon was at Dresden, advancing against Blücher, who was in Silesia. Blücher retired. Schwarzenberg came upon Dresden and had occupied a suburb when Napoleon returned and gave battle. The Austrians were defeated and driven into Bohemia.

45. Leipzig.—But Blücher and Bernadotte beat Napoleon's lieutenants and closed around Dresden. The emperor retreated to Leipzig, where he learned that the King of Bavaria had deserted him and that Westphalia was in revolt against his brother Lucien. A three days' battle ensued at Leipzig. On the third day the Saxons deserted

42. How did the campaign end? 43. Describe the sixth coalition against Napoleon. Tell of Wellington's victories in Spain. 44. What was the condition of affairs in August, 1813? 45. State the progress of events ending at Leipzig.

and Napoleon met with a disastrous defeat (October, 1813).

46. The Allies invade France (1813).—The Allies pursued the French across the Rhine and drove them towards Paris. All the subjugated peoples rose up against the French. Wellington had freed Spain and stood ready to invade France from the south with an army of one hundred thousand men. Napoleon tried to gain time by negotiation. Pius VII. was sent back to Rome, Ferdinand VII. to Spain. New levies were hastily raised and turned against his pursuers.

47. Brienne and La Rothière (1814).—On the 25th of January, 1814, Napoleon set out from Paris. He met Blücher at Brienne and beat him, but Blücher fell back on Schwarzenberg. They beat Napoleon at La Rothière, his raw levies being unable to withstand their vastly superior numbers and disciplined force. They then divided, one army holding Napoleon in check on the Marne, while the other marched along the Seine to Paris.

48. Brilliant Generalship of Napoleon.—Napoleon's generalship never showed itself more supreme than at this crisis. Suddenly leaving Schwarzenberg, he fell on Blücher and in five days inflicted four defeats on him, scattering his army along the Marne. Schwarzenberg was pursuing his victorious route to the capital. Crossing hastily to the Seine, he treated the Russian and Austrian forces much as he had treated the Prussians, and on February 18 drove Schwarzenberg from Montereau. The Allies asked an armistice and proposed peace on favorable enough terms to Napoleon; but, carried away by his brief success, he would not listen to the terms, and the Allies, at the treaty of Chaumont (March 1), pledged themselves to push

What was the result of the battle? 46. What followed? How did Napoleon attempt to gain time? 47. Describe the movements of Blücher and Schwarzenberg. 48. Tell how Napoleon defeated the two armies. What followed?

the war to an end and enforce their own conditions on France.

49. The Allies enter Paris.—Blücher, who had recruited his forces, was again driven back, but Schwarzenberg was making steady headway. Wellington had entered France and was hastening northward with his army. The royalists were active in Paris. Murat, to save his crown, had declared war against France. Napoleon vainly attempted a levy *en masse*, and Schwarzenberg, eluding him, entered Paris (March 31, 1814).

50. Napoleon abdicates.—Next day the municipality of Paris renounced obedience to Napoleon and recalled Louis XVIII. On the following day the senate renounced him. Napoleon, at Fontainebleau, proposed to abdicate in favor of his son, still hoping for time. His marshals refused to follow him, and he gave in his absolute abdication. The title of emperor was left him and the island of Elba assigned him for territory, with a revenue of two millions and a guard of four hundred men.

51. The Restoration (1814).—Louis XVIII. entered Paris (May 3, 1814) amid the acclamations of the populace. He made a treaty with the allied sovereigns which was very favorable to France under the circumstances. A congress met at Vienna to rearrange the map of Europe, which Napoleon's campaigns had ploughed up. Louis' ministers drew up a new constitution for France.

52. The Hundred Days (March to June, 1815).—Napoleon in Elba kept up a brisk correspondence with his adherents in France, and a conspiracy was formed for his restoration. Escaping from Elba, he suddenly landed in France. His soldiers flocked to him. Ney, who swore to bring him back to Paris in an iron cage, passed over his

49. How did the Allies succeed in entering Paris? 50. State what preceded the abdication of Napoleon. 51. Who became king? What is said of the treaty made with the Allies? 52. Give an account of Napoleon's escape from Elba.

command to him. All the forces sent to oppose him declared for the emperor. Louis fled, and on March 20 Napoleon again entered Paris.

53. The news of his return disturbed the Congress of Vienna. Again all Europe was leagued against France and Napoleon placed under the ban of nations. More than a million men turned towards the French frontier, and the Allies refused even to negotiate with Napoleon. The Vendéans took up arms against him, and the royalists were active in the interior.

54. Ligny; Quatre-Bras.—At the head of one hundred and twenty thousand men Napoleon crossed the Sambre, hoping to surprise Blücher and separate him from the English. He defeated him at Ligny after an obstinate battle. On the following day Ney attacked the English at Quatre-Bras, but failed to dislodge them. During the night Wellington abandoned his position for a stronger one at Mont St. Jean, near the village of Waterloo, which commanded the road to Brussels. There the decisive battle was fought.

55. Battle of Waterloo (June 18, 1815).—The armies were about equal in numbers, and by noon victory seemed to declare for the French. Napoleon was looking for Grouchy with reinforcements, and Wellington as anxiously for Blücher. Blücher arrived, but not Grouchy, and Napoleon met his last defeat. His Old Guard was almost annihilated in a final charge at the plateau of Mont St. Jean.

56. St. Helena.—The Allies gave him no time to recruit, but pushed on straight for Paris. Napoleon was deserted, and again abdicated in favor of his son, whom he proclaimed emperor under the title of Napoleon II. (June 22, 1815). He then resolved on setting sail for the United

53. What action did the Allies take? 54. Describe the opening of the campaign. Where did Wellington take his stand? 55. Describe the battle of Waterloo. 56. What befell Napoleon?

States, but, despairing of escaping the English cruisers, surrendered to Captain Maitland, of the British ship *Bellerophon*. He was banished to the barren island of St. Helena, where he died (May 5, 1821), after enduring much harsh treatment from the governor, Sir Hudson Lowe.

57. Second Treaty of Paris (1815).—The Allies were no longer disposed to be lenient with France. Wellington and Blücher entered Paris as conquerors. The remnants of the French army were compelled to lay down their arms and retire beyond the Loire. Louis XVIII. was restored. Important posts on the frontiers had to be surrendered. The north of France was placed under foreign occupation for five years. An indemnity of over a milliard francs was exacted, and the plundered treasures of foreign nations were restored.

58. Rearrangement of the European States.—This second treaty of Paris (November 20, 1815) and the Congress of Vienna form what are called the treaties of 1815. The limits and possessions of the different states of Europe were determined to the advantage of the allied powers. England secured various points of great strategic and maritime importance. Russia added most of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw to her vast domains. Austria recovered all she had lost, save Belgium, in return for which she got the Venetian states. Prussia was restored and enlarged. Belgium and Holland were erected into the kingdom of the Netherlands for the benefit of the house of Orange. Pope Pius VII. and the kings of Spain, Portugal, and Naples recovered their states. Murat, who had joined Napoleon during the Hundred Days, fell in a desperate effort to regain his throne. Ney was

How was Napoleon treated at St. Helena? 57. What conditions were imposed on France? 58. How did the Congress of Vienna affect Europe? Give a general sketch of the arrangements made.

condemned for treason and shot. All Napoleon's relatives were exiled. To Marie Louise was given the duchies of Parma and Piacenza.

SECTION IV. Great Britain and Ireland.

59. George III. (1760-1820).—George II., dying childless, was succeeded by his grandson, George III., the first monarch of the line born in England. To his obstinacy and lack of intelligence was greatly due the loss of the American colonies.

60. The Reform Agitation in England.—At the close of the Napoleonic wars Great Britain had a population of twenty millions. The legislation was very defective, the people were severely taxed to sustain the wars, and education was very backward. The representation of the people in the government was more nominal than real, and an agitation for reform set in which for a long time met with severe opposition from the government.

61. The outbreak of the French Revolution, and the excesses resulting from it, for a time stopped the progress of reform in England. With the downfall of Napoleon came peace, and with peace reaction after a long strain. Agitation again set in with bad harvests and trying times. The king's mind became enfeebled. Liberty of the press, of public meeting and public discussion, was prohibited.

62. Condition of the Catholics in Great Britain and Ireland.—The cruel penal laws against the Catholics were in full force during this reign. In 1778 a few concessions were made and provoked outbreaks among the Protestants in England and Scotland. Lord George Gordon set himself at the head of the Anti-Catholic Association that in 1780

59. What was the character of George III.? 60. Describe the condition of Great Britain at the close of the Napoleonic wars. 61. What hindered the agitation for reform? 62. Describe the condition of Catholics at this time.

sacked the churches and houses of Catholics in London. Riots ensued which had to be put down by the military.

63. In Ireland there was little change, the Catholics remaining still a subject body with practically no legal rights. The severity of the land laws drove the people into secret organizations, the chief of which was known as the White Boys, who, under deep provocation, committed many outrages.

64. Gradually the anti-Catholic laws relaxed somewhat in their observance. In 1771 Catholics in Ireland were allowed a few concessions in the matter of acquiring property. At the outbreak of the American Revolution a few more concessions were granted; and when France recognized the independence of the colonies a bill for the partial relief of Catholics was passed by which priests and schoolmasters were no longer subject to persecution.

65. The Irish Parliament (1782).—Public feeling began to be aroused in Ireland. Henry Grattan set the cry going for legislative independence and a native parliament to transact Irish affairs (1780). An armed organization, known as the Irish Volunteers, had been raised to defend the coasts from privateers. It speedily attained to immense proportions and supported Grattan's cry. The demand was acceded to, and an Irish Parliament assembled in Dublin (1782).

66. England destroys Irish Industries.—Commercial disabilities and other grievances of a foreign domination being removed, the country made rapid advances on the road to prosperity (1782-1800). Within eight years the population had increased from three to five millions. English traders and manufacturers grew alarmed at this prosperity and resented the removal of the Irish disabilities.

63. Why were the Irish driven into secret organizations? 64. How did relief come to Ireland? 65. What did Grattan urge, and how was he supported? 66. What feeling arose in England?

Ireland was becoming a dangerous commercial rival, and it was resolved to destroy its power in this respect. The Irish executive lent itself to the scheme and was bought over by the English government.

67. The United Irishmen.—The Catholics still labored under grave disabilities. An agitation for the removal of these was set on foot in 1791, Catholics and Protestants for once working together. This led to the formation of the organization of United Irishmen. The Irish Parliament, composed entirely of Protestants, rejected the petition for redress of Catholic grievances, though George III. was willing to remove some of them.

68. Rebellion in Ireland (1798).—The United Irishmen now turned for aid to the French Republic and entered into negotiations with it. The English government was fully informed of the matter, but took no steps to stop the movement. A French fleet with troops under General Hoche arrived in Bantry Bay (1796), but, finding no preparations for a rising, returned. English troops, composed in great part of hired Hessians, were then quartered on the people, and committed such atrocities that an insurrection broke out in a few counties (1798). Lord Edward Fitzgerald, a member of the house of Leinster, was one of the leaders. He was captured, and only saved from execution by dying in prison of his wounds.

69. After obtaining some success the insurrection was crushed at Vinegar Hill (June 21, 1798). Soon after a small French force arrived under General Humbert, but was compelled to surrender to Lord Cornwallis. The French were treated as prisoners of war, but merciless cruelty was displayed towards the Irish till the proclamation of an amnesty.

67. Who were the United Irishmen? How did the Irish Parliament act? 68. To whom did the United Irishmen look for aid? Describe the Irish insurrection of 1798. 69. What occurred at Vinegar Hill and subsequently?

70. The Act of Union.—In 1800 the Act of Union between England and Ireland was passed, and went into operation January 1, 1801. By it the Irish Parliament ceased to exist, and the two countries were henceforth known as “the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.” The Irish members sold out their independence. In 1803 another abortive rising took place, resulting in the execution of its brilliant young leader, Robert Emmet.

SECTION V. The American Union.

71. Formation of the Union (1789).—At the close of the war the independent States of North America were governed by the “Articles of Confederation” proposed by Congress at the time of the Declaration of Independence. These were soon found to be insufficient, and a convention, under the presidency of General Washington, met at Philadelphia to revise the Articles (May, 1787). A new Constitution was drawn up and the old Confederation yielded to the union of the States (March 4, 1789).

72. The first President.—Washington was chosen President and John Adams Vice-President. Political parties had now arisen and divided themselves into Federalists, who favored a strong central government, and Anti-Federalists, who insisted on the independent authority of the States within the Union. Washington headed the Federalists, and Thomas Jefferson the others. Washington, after serving two successive terms of the Presidency, refused to allow his name to be used again as a candidate, and bade a solemn farewell to his countrymen (September, 1796). He thenceforth retired into private life, and died at Mount Vernon, December 14, 1799.

70. What was the Act of Union? What of Robert Emmet? 71. What changes were made in the Constitution of the North American States? 72. Who were first President and Vice-President of the Union? What parties arose?

73. The Catholic Church in the United States.—At the time of the Revolution there were very few Catholic churches and comparatively few Catholics in the United States. The first see was erected in Maryland under Bishop Carroll, brother of Charles Carroll of Carrollton, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. The prejudices of the Old World were rife in the New, and it was some time before complete religious liberty was secured to Catholics in the United States. At the first national census (1790) it was estimated by Bishop Carroll that the Catholics numbered thirty thousand, or one per cent. of the population. Religious persecutions on the other side drove many priests and nuns to the soil of the new republic, and Catholic churches, communities, and educational establishments began to spread over the land.

74. War with France.—John Adams succeeded Washington in the Presidency (1796). Troubles broke out with the French Directory, and war was proclaimed. The exploits of the American fleet under Commodore Barry raised the republic in repute with foreign powers. Bonaparte, on attaining power, put an end to the war by concluding a treaty of peace (September 30, 1803). In this same year he sold the territory of Louisiana to the United States for fifteen millions of dollars, one-quarter of which was to be paid back as indemnity. In 1801 war was declared against the piratical states of Barbary, and again the naval prowess of Americans was conspicuously displayed. The beys of Tripoli and Tunis were compelled to sue for peace, which was signed in 1805.

75. War with England (1812-1815).—Americans suffered severely from the Continental blockade, which England insisted on maintaining in America. This finally led

73. Where and under whom was the first Catholic see erected in the United States? Sketch the growth of Catholicity. 74. Who succeeded Washington? What war arose? How did the war end? What of Barbary?

to a declaration of war against England (June 19, 1812). The beginning of the war was disastrous to the Americans on land; but at sea they covered themselves with glory, utterly destroying the belief in the invincibility of England on her favorite element. In August, 1814, Washington, the capital, was captured by General Ross, who committed acts of great barbarity. This was compensated for by the victory of General Jackson at New Orleans over a British army of veterans under Sir Edward Pakenham, in which the latter was killed. The war ended in 1815.

75. How came the United States to declare war against England? How did the war open, on land and sea? What occurred at Washington? What at New Orleans? When did the war end?

SIXTH EPOCH (1815-1848).

FROM THE PEACE OF PARIS TO THE GENERAL POPULAR RISING IN 1848—THIRTY-THREE YEARS.

THE nineteenth century witnessed the struggle of the peoples of Europe to attain to a share in the government. The first half of the century is chiefly occupied with this conflict. In France occurred a series of revolutions resulting in the erection of a new empire under Napoleon III. That empire was in turn overthrown and a new republic established. The rivalry between Austria and Prussia led to the predominance of the latter and the erection of a new German Empire under Prussia's leadership. Revolutions in Italy brought about the destruction of the various principalities, including the States of the Church, and the formation of the kingdom of Italy. The Turkish power continued to decline, and that of Russia, with occasional reverses, to advance. The United States of America sustained a terrible civil conflict, and then moved up to the front among the Powers of the world. The century was also marked by a wonderful advance in commerce and industry, favored by remarkable discoveries in the use and application of steam and electricity.

CHAPTER I.

THE STATE OF FRANCE.

SECTION I. France after the Fall of Napoleon.

1. **Louis XVIII. (1815-1824).**—After the fall of Napoleon France was left in a terrible condition. She had no army or navy, her treasury was empty, her trade and commerce destroyed, her soil in the hands of an enemy she had to support. The national pride that once gloried in

What struggle took place in the nineteenth century? What occurred in France? In Germany? In Italy? In Russia and Turkey? In the United States? For what else is the century remarkable?

the exploits of Napoleon now changed to a deep hatred, and the aged Louis XVIII. was welcomed back with every demonstration of affection and loyalty.

2. France again prosperous.—This outburst of loyalty soon gave way to faction and discontent. There were some risings that were quenched in blood. Nevertheless the country prospered and was in a rapid way towards recovery. In 1818 a congress of the powers assembled at Aix-la-Chapelle and agreed to withdraw the army of occupation from France. A powerful French army and navy were soon organized, and the old king died leaving the country in an advanced state of prosperity (1824). He was succeeded by his brother Charles, a man of sixty years.

3. Charles X. (1824-1830).—Charles began his reign by removing the restrictive measures found necessary during the preceding reign. He settled the question between the returned emigrés and those who were in possession of their estates by a moneyed indemnity to the dispossessed. Algiers was conquered during his reign (July 5, 1830) and its pirates scattered. But the spirit of revolt deepened at home. The king was obliged to resume restrictive measures. He dissolved the Chamber in 1828, and a more radical representation was returned.

SECTION II. The Revolution of 1830.

4. The King exiled.—Under the advice of Prince Polignac, the chief minister, the king increased his restrictive measures and dissolved the new Chamber even before it had assembled (July 25, 1830). Paris rose, the royal troops were vanquished and the king driven into exile.

1. How stood France after the fall of Napoleon? 2. What followed the recall of Louis XVIII.? What was decided at Aix-la-Chapelle? Who succeeded Louis? 3. Sketch the reign of Charles X. 4. What became of Charles X.?

5. Louis Philippe (1830-1848).—Louis Philippe, Duke of Orleans, son of Philippe Égalité, was chosen “King of the French,” and the French professed to be very proud of their “Citizen-King.” But they soon tired of his grasping spirit and stingy ways. An attempt on his life by Fieschi, a member of the secret societies, restored him to popular favor.

6. War in Algeria.—The war in Algeria, begun in the reign of Charles, continued. The Arab tribes, under their daring and capable chief, Abd-el-Kader, fought desperately for independence. But the victory of the Isly (1844) was a death-blow to their hopes, and three years later Abd-el-Kader surrendered to General Lamoricière. Algeria was converted into a French province.

7. The Ashes of Napoleon.—In 1840 Thiers, then prime minister, asked permission from the British government to restore to France the remains of the dead Emperor Napoleon. The request was granted. All the past was forgotten as the funeral procession passed through the streets of Paris, the king and his court assisting at the ceremony. All France mourned a dead hero, and the Bonapartists, never idle, renewed their activity. Louis Napoleon, nephew of the emperor, landed at Boulogne and attempted a rising. It proved abortive. He was arrested, thrown into prison, and then banished.

8. Causes of Discontent.—Still, the French people, especially the small farmers and working classes, were discontented, and riots occurred, which were put down by the military. The army was very large and the national expenditure enormous. Taxation was grievous, yet the king and his relatives continued to grow rich. A cry for reform arose, which the king resisted. The crops failed in

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5. Who was now chosen king? What was Louis Philippe's character?
6. What occurred in Algeria? 7. What memorable event occurred in 1840?
8. Why were the French discontented?

1846 and 1847. Corruption in the government was shown, but still the king and his minister, Guizot, resisted reform. The country was ripe for revolt.

CHAPTER II.

CATHOLIC EMANCIPATION AND REFORM IN GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.

IN spite of a vigorous opposition from the Tory party many needed changes were made in the franchise, some Catholic disabilities were removed, and improvements made in the condition of the English people. Ireland was still treated with shameful neglect.

SECTION I. George IV. (1820-1830).

1. Struggle for Reform.—The reign of George IV. is chiefly remarkable for the king's immoralities and the struggle for reform, of which Lord John Russell made himself the champion. He also attempted, though without success, to lighten some of the burdens that still pressed heavily on the Catholics.

2. O'Connell.—A Catholic Association was formed in Ireland with the purpose of bringing public opinion to bear on the government. Its chief leader was Daniel O'Connell, a young Irish lawyer of remarkable ability and courage. The government tried to suppress the Association, but O'Connell's legal skill enabled them to evade the law. A Catholic could not at this time become a member of the House of Commons. To bring matters to an issue O'Connell stood for Clare and was elected. On entering Parliament he boldly refused to take the Test Oath enacted in the reign of Charles II. He was sent back only to be re-

1. For what is the reign of George IV. remarkable? What of Lord John Russell? 2. What was the Irish Catholic Association? Who led the Association? What action did O'Connell take?

elected ; and the Duke of Wellington, then premier, reluctantly advised the king to yield.

3. Catholic Emancipation.—Amid intense public excitement and displays of popular bigotry the bill to remove Catholic disabilities was passed and received the royal sanction (April 13, 1829). This is known as Catholic Emancipation.

SECTION II. The Political Struggle in Great Britain.

4. The struggle for Catholic emancipation in Ireland was coincident with that for reform in England. The representation of the people in Parliament was wretchedly defective, and many of the laws were a disgrace to a civilized people.

5. William IV. (1830-1837) ; the Reform Bill ; Victoria.—George IV. died in 1830 and was succeeded by his brother, William, Duke of Clarence. In March, 1831, Lord John Russell introduced a Reform Bill, which aimed at disfranchising a large number of corrupt boroughs and enfranchising important towns that were unrepresented. After a struggle that approached a revolution it was finally passed and received the royal assent on June 7, 1832. Similar bills for Ireland and Scotland followed, and on August 1, 1834, Lord Stanley's act for abolishing slavery in the British Colonies came into operation. The king died in 1837 without issue, and was succeeded by his niece, the Princess Victoria, who three years later was married to her cousin, Albert Edward, Prince of Saxe-Coburg-Gotha.

6. Famine in Ireland (1845-1847).—Irish commerce and trade having been destroyed to satisfy English merchants, the mass of the people were thrown back on the land for

3. What is Catholic Emancipation ? 4. What struggle was going on in England ? 5. Who succeeded George IV. ? What of the Reform Bill ? What went into effect August 1, 1834 ? Who succeeded William IV. ?

a living, the potato being the staple article of food. In 1845 occurred a partial failure of the crop, which grew to fearful proportions in 1846. The government had been warned of what was impending, but failed to make anything approaching an adequate attempt at prevention or relief. A terrible famine, that devastated and depleted the country, ensued. Those who could left the country and embarked for the United States and Canada. Between starvation and emigration Ireland lost during this period more than two millions of her population.

CHAPTER III.

REFORM ON THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

In the German and Italian states the arbitrary and despotic rule of the monarchs provoked grave discontent among the people and indirectly encouraged the formation of secret societies. The rivalry between Austria and Prussia grew more marked.

SECTION I. Popular Discontent.

1. Broken Promises.—In other countries of Europe, less even than in England, was there anything like real representative government. The people had endured all the hardships of the long wars brought on in great measure by the ambitions or rivalries of monarchs and statesmen. They began to demand liberties in return. To rouse their people against Napoleon the German princes had promised reform. When Napoleon fell they forgot their promises.

2. German Confederation.—Europe, particularly Germany, had been torn up by Napoleon and the order of states disarranged. At the Congress of Vienna the thirty-

6. What caused the famine in Ireland? How did the government provide against the famine? What was Ireland's loss? 1. What disturbance was spreading over Europe? How did the rulers meet it?

seven Germanic states were re-formed into one Confederation, with Austria at the head. It comprised thirty millions of people and an army of three hundred thousand men. It was represented in a diet that met at Frankfort.

3. Prussia and Reform.—The people in some of the smaller German states, such as Hanover and Würtemberg, were strong enough to wrest the promised reform from their rulers. The Prussian government set its face against extending the liberties of the people, and suppressed the newspapers that agitated the question. To guard against the extension of those liberties the diet adopted measures that prevented the smaller states from granting constitutions.

4. Growth of Secret Societies.—This repression gave strength to the secret societies that had gradually been growing up in Europe, and whose object was the overthrow of all existing governments and the establishment of a new and unchristian social order. They had much to do with the French Revolution, but found a ruthless enemy in Napoleon. With his fall from power they renewed their activity and availed themselves of the general discontent to make many proselytes. Their purposes were opposed and denounced by a succession of Roman pontiffs, and both rulers and people warned against their doctrines and practices. This explains their unalterable enmity to the Holy See.

5. Repressive Measures in Germany.—They were especially active in France, Spain, and Naples, and the German princes took alarm at their growth. To guard against their entrance into Germany the diet renewed and increased its measures of repression to a ridiculous extent, while the governments steadfastly refused all petitions for

2. What was the German Confederation? 3. How fared matters in the German states? 4. What of the secret societies? Who opposed the secret societies? 5. Where were the societies most active?

redress of grievances from the people and severely punished any attempts in that direction. While matters were in this condition the peoples saw another ruler, Charles X., driven from power for adopting despotic measures. A marked sensation was created in Germany, and the diet went on increasing its repressive measures in every direction.

SECTION II. Growing Rivalry between Austria and Prussia.

6. Prussia.—After the Congress of Vienna Prussia represented in territory a hundred thousand square miles, and in population ten millions. It was jealous of Austria's supremacy in the diet and had not forgotten the lessons of Frederick the Great. The Confederation was purely political in its objects. It did nothing for commerce or business. Each state had its own commercial laws and arrangements, productive of great confusion and loss. To put an end to this Prussia organized a commercial league with all the German states save Austria, thus at one stroke removing all the barriers to interstate trade, producing much good to the German people and helping on the tendency to closer union.

7. Austria and Reform.—The Emperor Francis I. of Austria, though a sincere lover of his people, stoutly resisted every attempt at an extension of their liberties. What he wanted^s was obedient subjects. He had no conception of the political rights of a people, save such as he might choose to grant. His minister, Metternich, fully entered into his schemes. The consequence was that Austria, troubled with divided nationalities and interests, and with a growing financial depression, became a very hot-bed of secret societies.

What measures did the German Diet adopt? 6. To what did Prussia aspire? What league did Prussia organize? 7. How did the Emperor of Austria act? Who was the Austrian chief minister?

CHAPTER IV.

THE EASTERN QUESTION.

THE Turkish Empire began to be a source of uneasiness to Europe. Greece was freed through a co-operation of the powers; but England, fearful of Russian predominance on the eastern shores of the Mediterranean and at the gates of India, assumed a protectorate over the decaying empire.

1. Final Decline of Turkey.—Notwithstanding her gradual decline after the battle of Lepanto, Turkey still held some of the fairest provinces of Europe, which under her rule were slowly rotting to decay. Lepanto saved Hungary from her, and Venice defeated her on the Grecian mainland. The Poles had beaten her back, and the giant power of Russia began to encroach ominously upon the Turkish borders in search of a southern seaboard. Thus originated the long struggle between Russia and Turkey, which has at times drawn into it all Europe.

2. Jealousy of Russia's Growth.—The other European powers, jealous of Russia's growth, were opposed to her obtaining this seaboard, which would give her command of the eastern Mediterranean and immense commercial advantages. England, the great naval and commercial power, with vast interests of its own in the East, led this opposition and protected the Turks. The Christian peoples subject to the Turks repeatedly rose for their independence, but were put down.

3. Grecian Insurrection (1821).—In 1821 the Greeks rose in a body, and for nearly seven years maintained single-handed a desperate struggle against the Turks. After losing half their people the English, French, and

1. How fared Turkey after Lepanto? What power was Turkey's chief opponent? 2. Why did the powers oppose Russia? Who headed the opposition? 3. Describe the Grecian insurrection of 1821.

Russian governments interfered and compelled Turkey to content herself for the future with a tribute and the nominal sovereignty of Greece. The allied fleets entered the Bay of Navarino and destroyed the Turkish fleet (1827), thus bringing Turkey to terms. The more southern of the Greek states, renowned in ancient times, were constituted into the kingdom of Greece, with Otho, son of the King of Bavaria, as its first monarch (1832).

4. War between Russia and Turkey.—Meanwhile disputes broke out between Russia and Turkey, resulting in war. Czar Nicholas invaded Turkey, and, notwithstanding an obstinate resistance, was soon within eighty miles of Constantinople. The Western powers took alarm. England and Austria hastened to interfere. Russia signed an advantageous peace, which secured the virtual independence of the Servians. Egypt next revolted against Turkish rule and secured its independence, with a nominal deference to Turkish suzerainty (1839).

CHAPTER V.

PROGRESS OF EVENTS IN THE UNITED STATES (1816-1848).

AFTER the close of the war with Great Britain (1815) great prosperity set in in the United States. The Western Territories began to be settled by native and foreign immigrants. Meanwhile questions of state rights, commercial questions, and the question of slavery became subjects of bitter controversy. A war with Mexico added a new and wide domain to the country, and the discovery of gold in California raised that Territory to great importance.

SECTION I. The Question of Slavery.

1. Sources of Trouble.—During the administration of President Monroe (1817-1825) the question of slavery in

What action did the powers take? What constituted the kingdom of Greece? Who was made king? 4. Sketch the war between Russia and Turkey. What of Egypt? Describe the condition of the United States after 1815.

the United States began to cause trouble. In the Northern States the use of slave labor had nearly died out. In the South, in consequence of the rapid development of the cotton industry, it had greatly increased. The field labor was entirely in the hands of negro slaves, who, with their industry, became sources of great wealth to the planters.

2. In the Northern States slavery came to be prohibited by law; in all Territories south of New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Ohio it was permitted. Hence arose a struggle for the control of the government between the slave States and the free. The manufacturing North was in favor of high duties on foreign importations; the agricultural South favored free-trade. This was another cause of disagreement.

3. **The Monroe Doctrine.**—In 1820 occurred the revolt of the Spanish colonies of South America against the home government. Two years later President Monroe acknowledged them as independent nations. In the annual message (1823) the President made the important declaration that “the American continents are not to be considered as subjects for future colonization by any European power.” This principle, known as the “Monroe Doctrine,” was accepted by the people as the policy of the United States.

4. **Symptoms of Secession.**—During the Presidency of Andrew Jackson (1829-1837) the dispute between North and South on the question of tariff deepened. In 1832 a tariff act was passed increasing certain duties. A State convention in South Carolina declared the tariff acts unconstitutional, and preparations were made to take the State out of the Union. The right of a State to annul

1. How did the slave trouble originate in the United States? 2. What other dispute arose in the Union? 3. What is meant by the Monroe doctrine? 4. Sketch the progress of the tariff dispute.

an act of Congress was claimed and supported by John C. Calhoun, who had resigned the Vice-Presidency. The President issued a proclamation denying such right, and sent a vessel of war with troops to Charleston to enforce the proclamation. A compromise measure for the gradual reduction of the tariff was introduced by Henry Clay, and the conflict was stayed for a time.

SECTION II. War with Mexico.

5. Annexation of Texas.—In 1844 Texas, which had separated from Mexico in 1835, desired to be annexed to the United States. A treaty of annexation was passed (March 1, 1845), and a small army of occupation, under General Zachary Taylor, marched into Texas. This brought on war with Mexico. The Mexicans were defeated at Palo Alto (May 8, 1846), and again on the following day at Resaca de la Palma. Reinforcements arriving, the city of Monterey was captured in September, after a three days' conflict.

6. Capture of the City of Mexico (1847).—The United States forces passed from victory to victory, even against great numerical odds. General Taylor utterly routed the Mexican president, General Santa Anna, at Buena Vista (February 23, 1847), and the city of Vera Cruz surrendered to General Scott (March 26). Scott again defeated Santa Anna on the heights of Cerro Gordo, and in August, 1847, appeared before the city of Mexico. After a severe struggle it fell (September 14, 1847). A treaty of peace was signed at Guadalupe Hidalgo (February 2, 1848) which included the surrender of Texas and the sale to the United States of the provinces of Upper California and New Mexico.

What action did the President take? 5. What caused the war with Mexico? Sketch the progress of the struggle. 6. Describe the battles of Buena Vista, Cerro Gordo, and the fall of Mexico. What treaty was signed?

7. Discovery of Gold in California.—California at this time contained scarcely fifteen thousand inhabitants. Gold had been discovered (February, 1848) on the American fork of the Sacramento River. This discovery led to a great emigration from the Atlantic coast of the United States to the newly-acquired territory, and the gold-mines proved enormously productive. During President Polk's term the tide of emigration set in from Europe to the United States. Between 1845 and 1847 over half a million of people landed, more than half of whom were Irish.

7. What discovery was made in California? What was the result of the discovery? What great emigration began at this time?

SEVENTH EPOCH (1848-1881).

FROM THE REVOLUTION OF 1848 TO THE PRESENT DAY—THIRTY-THREE YEARS.

THE beginning of this epoch is characterized by a feverish excitement on all sides. The repressive policy of the European governments caused a general outbreak, followed by the granting of constitutional rights to the peoples. The Eastern question provoked new wars. Prussia completed the humiliation of Austria, conquered France with the aid of the German states, and, with itself as centre, raised up a new German Empire. The states of Italy were united into one kingdom, and the pope deprived of the last vestige of temporal power. The United States were convulsed with a terrific civil war, from which they emerged more powerful than ever.

CHAPTER I.

THE REVOLUTION OF 1848.

FRANCE again overthrows its government and sets up a republic. The example is followed by a general revolt throughout Europe.

SECTION I. The Revolution in France (1848).

1. Abdication of Louis Philippe.—Public meetings to agitate reform were prohibited in France. One announced in Paris for February 22, 1848, assembled in spite of prohibition, and came into collision with the military. What was merely a demonstration became a revolution. The king abdicated in favor of his grandson and fled to England.

2. The Republic.—A provisional republic was set up with Lamartine, a distinguished writer and orator, at its head. Legislation proceeded at a rapid rate. Some absurd and

What is the character of the Seventh Epoch? What great changes occurred in it? 1. How did the Revolution of 1848 originate in France? What became of Louis Philippe? 2. What government was established?

some good measures were proposed and carried. The republic was proclaimed with only one legislative chamber, the president to be elected once every four years.

3. Paris rose in insurrection against the new government. A terrible conflict raged for three days, when, after great shedding of blood, General Cavaignac succeeded in quelling the revolt.

4. **Louis Napoleon President (1848).**—Prince Louis Napoleon, having been allowed to return, was elected to the legislature, and soon became a candidate for the presidency. He was elected by an immense majority, and, entering office, swore to maintain the constitution (December 10, 1848).

SECTION II. Revolt in Prussia and Central Germany.

5. **Revolution in Germany.**—The expulsion of Louis Philippe shocked Europe into the revolt for which it had been preparing. The people rose everywhere against the monarchs. In the smaller German states the princes at once succumbed and conceded whatever the people demanded.

6. **Revolt quelled in Prussia.**—The King of Prussia attempted to place himself at the head of the movement and guide it, promising liberal measures and parliamentary government. But the people rose in Berlin (March, 1848). The ministry was changed for a more liberal one, and a representative government was announced. The new Assembly, unequal to its office, wasted time and public patience in useless discussions. The troops concentrated under General Wrangel, entered Berlin, and turned the talkative Assembly out of doors. Reaction again set in, and one of the strongest supporters of what were claimed

3. What occurred in Paris? 4. Who became President of the Republic? 5. What effect had the revolution on Europe? 6. What occurred in Prussia? How was the revolution quelled?

as the royal prerogatives in Prussia at this time was the young Count Otto von Bismarck.

SECTION III. Revolt in Austria.

7. Insurrection in Vienna.—Vienna followed the example of Paris. The palace of Prince Metternich was sacked. Conflicts occurred between the people and the military. A new ministry was appointed, freedom of the press was granted, and the people were promised whatever they demanded.

8. Rising throughout the Empire.—Soon all Austria was in commotion. Hungary declared its independence, and the Slavs of Bohemia and Silesia rose. Italy was in arms. Vienna was in insurrection, and the emperor had fled.

9. Quelling of the Revolt.—Vienna, after a terrific bombardment and slaughter, was captured from the insurgents. Radetzky defeated the Italians and Prince Windischgratz subdued the Slavs. The emperor, despairing of resuming his old character among the people, abdicated in favor of his nephew, Francis Joseph, a boy of eighteen. The revolt in Hungary under Kossuth and Görgey was only quelled by the assistance of an army of one hundred and fifty thousand Russians. The Hungarians were treated with great barbarity, Haynau, the Austrian general, putting to death every Hungarian leader who fell into his hands.

10. Concessions.—The revolts had their effect. The emperor proclaimed the excellence of free institutions and the restoration of the empire on a free and liberal basis (December 5, 1848).

SECTION IV. The Revolution in Italy.

11. Revolt quelled by Austria.—The secret societies had

7. What occurred in Vienna? 8. What occurred in other parts of the empire?
9. How was the Vienna revolt quelled? What action did the emperor take?
What of Hungary? 10. What concessions were made?

been exceptionally active in Italy, the most formidable of them being known as Carbonari. In 1820 revolts overthrew the governments of Naples and Piedmont; but Austria, with the consent of the other powers, marched her armies in and quelled the insurrection. In 1831 an insurrection in Modena extended to the Papal States. The abolition of the temporal power of the pope (Gregory XVI.) was proclaimed, when Austria again stepped in to put a stop to the movement.

12. Rising against Austria.—Italy joined in the general revolt of 1848. The leaders of the secret societies flocked into the country. Mazzini was the spirit, Garibaldi the arm, of the rising. It was proposed to expel the Austrians from Venetia and Lombardy. Pius IX., who had recently ascended the papal throne (June 16, 1846), though an ardent Italian and liberal-minded man, refused to allow the authority and troops of the Holy See to be used as the instruments of bloodshed, and refused to join the insurgents.

13. Charles Albert, the King of Sardinia, invaded Lombardy, but was crushed by Radetzky at Novara (March 23, 1849), and abdicated in favor of his son, Victor Emmanuel.

14. Rome in the Hands of the Revolutionists.—A revolt was raised in the Papal States, and Rome was seized by the insurgents. De Rossi, the pope's minister, was assassinated, and the pope compelled to fly to Gaeta. Anarchy reigned in the city. At the demand of the people of France Louis Napoleon, president of the French Republic, sent General Oudinot with an army to restore the pope and establish order. Rome was taken after a siege of two months. The pope returned in triumph from exile, and

11. Describe events in Italy. Who quelled the revolts? 12. Sketch the rising against Austria. 13. What of Charles Albert? 14. What occurred in Rome? What was done by the French?

a permanent French force was left to protect him and maintain order (1849).

SECTION V. Reforms in Great Britain and Ireland.

15. The reform that had already set in in Great Britain saved it from the general revolt. In Ireland matters were different. O'Connell, after winning Catholic emancipation, struggled vainly to gain a repeal of the Union and Irish control over Irish affairs. His failure caused some of the more ardent and youthful of his followers to look to arms as their only chance for redress of grievances. These were known as the Young Ireland party. An abortive rising was made. The leaders were taken and condemned to be executed. The sentence was changed to transportation for life, and after a period was commuted, save in the case of those who effected their escape.

CHAPTER II.

RUSSIA AND THE EASTERN QUESTION.

SECTION I. The Crimean War (1854-1856).

1. **Origin of the War.**—The Russian movement and policy in the direction of the Mediterranean brought on another war with Turkey (October, 1853). The Turkish squadron was destroyed at Sinope. England, fearful of Russia's advance, made an alliance with France, then under Napoleon III., against Russia, and on March 28, 1854, declared war.

2. **Siege of Sebastopol.**—The Allies were bent on destroying Sebastopol, the Russian fortress on the Black Sea.

15. How fared matters in Ireland? What of O'Connell and the Young Ireland party? 1. What new war occurred with Turkey? What alliance was made against Russia?

Thus the war was chiefly confined to the Crimea. The first important battle occurred at the river Alma (September 20, 1854), where the Russians were dislodged from a strong position and forced back towards Sebastopol. The Allies possessed themselves of the heights and the siege of the city was begun.

3. Fall of Sebastopol; Treaty of Paris.—The Russians vainly attempted to dislodge them. One of their most formidable attempts was made at Inkermann (November 5), but was repulsed. The siege was protracted through the winter, and bad management added greatly to the severity of the English soldiers' sufferings. In January, 1855, Sardinia joined the alliance. The Allies crept slowly up to the walls, and the Czar Nicholas, seeing his fortress doomed and his ambition foiled, died of a broken heart. He was succeeded by his son, Alexander II. The siege was protracted to September, the defence being most stubborn. The city at last fell, after terrible losses to both sides, and peace was signed at Paris (March 30, 1856). Russia renounced her protectorate over the Danubian provinces and the Black Sea was made neutral.

SECTION II. Russian Advance in Asia.

4. Russia, checked in Europe, was steadily pushing her way into Central Asia. In 1867 her generals succeeded in establishing a protectorate over the state of Bokhara. This brought them into the vicinity of Afghanistan, and a diplomatic struggle for the mastery of that warlike country set in between England and Russia. Shere Ali, the ameer, after first siding with the English, went over to the Russians, thus bringing on a conflict in his own

2. Sketch the beginning of the campaign in Russia. 3. Describe the siege of Sebastopol. What new ally came in? What of the Czar Nicholas? How did the war end? 4. Sketch Russian progress in Asia.

dominions that ended with his death. In 1869 Russia captured Khiva.

CHAPTER III.

CONCENTRATION OF THE GREAT POWERS.

LOUIS NAPOLEON overturns the republic in France and becomes emperor. By his aid Sardinia, by invading the rights of other principalities in Italy, absorbs them and forms the kingdom of Italy. Prussia gains the ascendancy over Austria, and by a successful war with France welds the German states into one empire.

SECTION I. Downfall of the French Republic.

1. Coup d'État (December 2, 1851).—Once president of the French Republic, Louis Napoleon aimed at playing the rôle of his uncle and becoming emperor. Discreet in his actions and bringing prosperity to the country, he soon gained public confidence and with it complete control over the army, the magistracy, and the police. To secure his power he resolved on destroying the Assembly, and, concentrating the troops, arrested the chief members on the night of December 2, 1851. Next morning the Assembly was abolished and Paris placed in a state of siege.

2. Louis Napoleon made Emperor.—A new government was proposed, with a president elected for ten years and enjoying what was practically absolute power. The people voted him the powers he asked. Paris alone rose, but the insurrection was quenched in blood. The Senate, at his instigation, next year moved the restoration of the empire, and the vote of the nation sanctioned its action. The Napoleonic dynasty was restored in the person of

1. What was the ambition of Louis Napoleon? Describe his policy. Tell of the coup d'état. 2. What followed the coup d'état? What action did the Senate take?

Louis, who took the title of Napoleon III. (December 2, 1852).

SECTION II. Movements in Italy.

3. Cavour.—Sardinia had been crippled at Novara, and in 1850 Victor Emmanuel called Count Cavour to the head of affairs. He was a man as able as he was unscrupulous, and set himself the task of making Italy one kingdom. He took advantage of the secret societies. He restored the finances and strengthened the army. To gain Sardinia a recognition among the powers he sent an army to aid the Allies in the Crimea.

4. War with Austria (1859).—Austria was still the strongest power in Italy, and it was necessary to break that power in order to carry out Cavour's schemes. A marriage was arranged between the Princess Clotilda, daughter of Victor Emmanuel, and Prince Jerome Napoleon, cousin of the French emperor. Thus the French alliance was gained. Volunteers flocked in from all parts of Italy to join the Sardinian army. The Emperor of Austria remonstrated at the hostile movement, and, receiving no satisfaction, invaded Sardinia (May 1, 1859).

5. Battles of Magenta and Solferino; Treaty of Villa Franca (1859).—The French joined the Sardinians (May 13). The Austrians were beaten at Magenta (June 4) and at Solferino (June 24). Then, fearful of European intervention, Napoleon III., on his own account, hastily concluded a peace at Villa Franca (July 11). Lombardy was ceded to Sardinia through the emperor, but Austria was allowed to retain Venetia. Cavour resigned for the time rather than sign the, to him, incomplete treaty. Nice and Savoy were, by previous agreement, ceded by Sardinia

3. Who was Cavour? Describe his character. 4. How was French alliance won to Italy? What action did Austria take? 5. Describe the campaign in Italy. What was the peace of Villa Franca?

to France in return for the French assistance. The duchies of Parma, Modena, and Tuscany, which had expelled their rulers, united themselves to Sardinia, and Romagna was absorbed by the same power from the Papal States. Sardinia had thus by a three months' campaign added nine millions to her population.

6. Garibaldi's Campaign in Sicily and Naples (1860).—Cavour was recalled to power in 1860. In May of the same year Garibaldi, with Cavour's connivance, invaded Sicily at the head of a force of adventurers. In three months the island was in his power and he declared himself dictator. In August he crossed over to Calabria, and the king, Francis II., fled to Gaeta. Naples opened its gates to Garibaldi (September 7).

7. Seizure of the Papal States.—Pius IX. had vainly appealed to the Catholic powers against the absorption of Romagna. He appealed from them to the devotion of the faithful, and Catholic volunteers flocked to him from all lands. Lamoricière was his general. Before they could concentrate Cavour ordered the invasion of the Papal States, and General Cialdini crushed the little band of volunteers at Castelfidardo (September 18), and completed his victory by compelling Lamoricière to capitulate at Ancona (September 29, 1860). The Roman Marches and Umbria were seized, and the pope was left nothing save a narrow strip of territory on the Mediterranean, including the cities of Rome and Civita Vecchia, with a population of about half a million.

SECTION III. Prussian Development.

8. Count von Bismarck.—Frederick William, dying in 1861, was succeeded by his brother, William I. Count

What was Sardinia's gain? 6. Describe Garibaldi's campaign in Sicily and Naples. 7. To whom did the pope look for aid? Describe the seizure of the Papal States. What was left to the pope?

Bismarck, the resolute opponent of popular government, already in favor with the old monarchy, was still further advanced under the new. Called back from the French embassy (1862), he was asked to conduct the government. There was conflict between the executive and the Lower House of Parliament. Bismarck put an end to it by dissolving Parliament and telling the members that he would carry on the government without them. This he did for four years.

9. War with Denmark (1863); the Schleswig-Holstein Difficulty.—He was resolved on making Prussia the leading power in Germany. Austria was now weaker than it ever had been. Bismarck's association with Napoleon III. had enabled him to gauge the capacities of that monarch. A dispute over the succession to the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein gave him his first opportunity. They claimed their independence from Denmark, and the matter was referred to the German Diet (1863). The Diet favored the claims of the duchies as belonging to the German Confederation. The result was a war, in which the Danes, failing promised aid from England, were beaten by the joint forces of Austria and Prussia, and the disputed duchies occupied by the troops of the allies.

10. War with Austria (1866).—Here a new dispute arose as to the share of the spoils, Prussia and Austria each striving for control over the provinces. Austria referred the matter to the Diet (May, 1866), but Prussia, aided by other German states, withdrew from the Confederation and invaded Holstein. War was declared against Austria (June 18, 1866). Italy joined Prussia.

11. Battle of Sadowa; Peace of Prague.—The Italians were defeated at Custozza with great loss (June 24, 1866),

8. Who succeeded Frederick William of Prussia? What of Count Bismarck?
9. What occasioned the war with Denmark? Describe the war. 10. What dispute now arose? The result?

and their fleet, though superior in numbers, was badly beaten and driven into the harbor of Ancona (July 20). Count von Moltke was the Prussian commander, and his superior generalship secured victory in the north. Bohemia was invaded, and the Austrians were driven back towards Sadowa. Here the decisive battle was fought (July 3). The Austrians were completely defeated. Peace was signed at Prague (August, 1866). Venetia was ceded to Italy, and the supremacy in Germany secured to Prussia. A new confederation of the German states north of the Main was formed, with Prussia at the head (1866).

SECTION IV. War between France and Germany (1870-1871).

12. Decay of the Third Empire.—The sudden rise of Prussia awakened the jealousy of the French people. The government of Napoleon III. had been growing unpopular. A French expedition into Mexico to set the Archduke Maximilian on the throne had ended in disaster and the death of Maximilian. The emperor tried to conciliate the French people by giving them half-liberties, which only exasperated them and were used against him. He was, moreover, growing physically weak and had lost his most capable advisers.

13. Immediate Cause of the War.—Napoleon III. had, at Bismarck's instance, remained neutral during the war between Prussia and Austria, on the understanding of certain returns consequent on Prussia's victory. His demands were curtly rejected. The French people felt themselves humiliated. A revolution had occurred in Spain, expelled Queen Isabella, and endowed General Prim with the chief power. After various offers of the Spanish crown Prince

11. How fared Italy? Describe the campaign in Bohemia. Where were the Austrians defeated? Give the terms of peace. 12. What of Napoleon III. and his empire? 13. What new struggle came on?

Leopold of Hohenzollern, a remote blood-relation of the Prussian king, was selected and the offer was accepted.

14. A storm was raised in France, and, at the instance of the English government, the King of Prussia agreed to withdraw his consent to Prince Leopold's acceptance of the Spanish crown. The emperor demanded that at no future time should he sanction such a nomination. This extraordinary demand was refused, and war was declared against Prussia (July 19, 1870).

15. **Opening of the Campaign; Battles of Wissembourg, Wörth, and Spicheren.**—The French set out to invade Prussia, the emperor at their head. The German states united against the invaders. Count Bismarck had completed his arrangements, while Napoleon III. was wholly deceived as to the condition and numbers of his armies. The Germans were given time to concentrate, and at the first important engagement (Wissembourg, August 5) General Douay was surprised by the German crown prince, his force routed, and himself slain. Douay commanded the left wing of MacMahon's army, and on the next day the latter was attacked and beaten, near Wörth, by greatly superior forces. On the same day General Steinmetz, with inferior forces, stormed the heights of Spicheren and dislodged the French under General Frossard.

16. **Effect of the Defeats.**—These were terrible blows, and France now found itself invaded. The emperor was with Bazaine at Metz, dismayed at the sudden disasters. At the news of the defeats Paris was in wild commotion and the ministry was compelled to resign. MacMahon had reached Châlons with his broken remnants, and there drew up and concentrated. The joint command of MacMahon and Bazaine still represented about three hundred thou-

14. What was the immediate cause of war? 15. Who leagued against France? Describe the opening battles 16. How did Paris accept the defeats? What armies were left to France?

sand men, and Metz was a city strong enough, if properly defended, to stay the German advance.

17. Battles of Rezonville and Gravelotte.—On August 14 Bazaine began a retreat towards Châlons, with a view to effecting a junction with MacMahon. He had lingered too long and allowed the Germans to come between them. His retreat was stayed by Von Steinmetz at a desperate sacrifice. At Rezonville and Gravelotte were fought two bloody battles on the 16th and 18th. Bazaine was forced back towards Metz, and the city was invested by Prince Frederick Charles.

18. Battle of Sedan.—The crown prince was making for Châlons in hot haste. MacMahon was, against his own advice, ordered to relieve Metz. He eluded the crown prince, but was overtaken by his cavalry on the 29th. Next day General de Failly was surprised at Mouzon. After several days of severe fighting some of the French were forced over the Belgian frontier and compelled to lay down their arms, and the rest entered the town of Sedan, MacMahon being severely wounded. The Germans with their artillery occupied the heights around Sedan, and resistance was useless. The emperor surrendered and the army capitulated (September 2).

19. Revolution in Paris; Proclamation of a Republic.—At the news Paris rose and invaded the legislative body (September 4), the National Guards fraternizing with the populace. A republic under a provisional government was at once proclaimed. The Empress Eugénie barely escaped with her life.

20. Siege of Paris.—The King of Prussia and the crown prince now advanced on Paris. The city was invested (September 19) and shut off from the rest of France.

17. How was Bazaine caught? 18. What order was given MacMahon? Describe events leading to the surrender at Sedan. 19. What occurred in Paris? 20. Tell of Gambetta's exploit.

Léon Gambetta, a member of the provisional government, escaped in a balloon, and, reaching Tours (October 9), assumed the civil and military government of France outside Paris.

21. Fall of Metz.—Orléans was occupied (September 27), evacuated, and again taken (October 10) by the Bavarians under General Von der Tann. Bazaine was surrounded in Metz. The hopes of France were centred in him, but he attempted to play politician. Failing, he surrendered on October 29, and France was left without a regular army in the field.

22. Fall of Paris; Treaty of Versailles.—Gambetta proved himself an active organizer, but the levies were raw, undisciplined, and badly generalled. They were easily defeated on all sides by the German veterans. All the attempts to relieve Paris were utterly defeated. The city, under General Trochu, made a stubborn defence, but it was hopeless. The Germans were victorious everywhere, and by the middle of January, 1871, there was not a French army worthy of the name. The city capitulated on January 28, and the preliminaries of peace were signed at Versailles (February 26). The province of Alsace, save the unconquered fortress of Belfort, and a fifth part of Lorraine, including Metz, were ceded to Germany. An indemnity of \$1,000,000,000 was demanded, to be paid within three years, a German army of occupation to remain until it was paid. On March 1 the German armies entered Paris in triumph. The indemnity was paid within the time and without borrowing of any foreign country.

21. What occurred at Orléans? Tell of the fall of Metz. 22. What efforts did the French make? Who defended Paris? Tell of the peace of Versailles. What indemnity was demanded?

CHAPTER IV.

RUSSIA AFTER THE CRIMEAN WAR.

SECTION I. Reforms of Alexander II.

1. The Serfs freed.—The Czar Nicholas ruled Russia with an iron hand. His death, following on the defeat in the Crimea, brought with it only bitter memories. The revolution that had shaken Europe found some echoes in Russia, and on the accession of Alexander II. certain concessions were made to the people. The press was allowed greater freedom and disseminated the new ideas. Upwards of forty millions of Russian peasants were in a state of serfdom. The emperor, in spite of the strenuous opposition of the nobles, abolished serfdom (1861). He introduced trial by jury in criminal cases and admitted the people to a certain share in local self-government. But the general government remained still a rigorous absolutism.

2. Insurrection in Poland (1863).—The Poles had never lost the hope of regaining their freedom and autonomy. The results of the war and the new concessions profoundly moved Russian society. This was thought to favor the Polish movement, which was hastened by the insults of the czar and his officials. The czar, knowing what was contemplated, goaded on the Poles by capturing all the youths of the noble and higher classes who were judged to be disaffected towards the government. The exasperated people rose.

3. The Poles crushed.—The rising was simply a brutal

1. What concessions did Alexander II. make? What did he abolish? 2. What hope had the Poles? How did the czar treat the Poles? What was the result?

massacre on the part of the Russians. England, France, and Austria remonstrated with Russia in behalf of the Poles, but their remonstrance never went beyond words. The insurrection was put down with inhuman cruelty. What was left of Poland became wholly incorporated with Russia. The Polish language was suppressed by law. The religion of the people, the Catholic, became an object of bitter persecution, and all intercourse between the Catholic clergy in Poland and all Russia with the Holy See was prohibited.

SECTION II. Russian Schemes of Aggrandizement.

4. Revolt of Crete; the Suez Canal.—Russia, having partially recovered from the effects of the Crimean war, advanced again towards the Mediterranean. She fed the constant disaffection of the Christian provinces under Turkish rule. In 1866 Crete rose against Turkey and was actively supported by both Russia and Greece. England secretly supported Turkey. Others of the powers made representations in behalf of the Cretans. A compromise was effected at Paris (1869), and the insurrection ended as soon as outer aid was withdrawn. In the same year the Suez Canal, thanks to the energy and engineering skill of M. de Lesseps, opened up a new avenue between the East and the West.

SECTION III. War between Russia and Turkey (1876-1877).

5. Declaration of War.—Russia called for a conference of the European powers to determine the disputes between Turkey and the revolting Christian provinces, that were greatly oppressed under Turkish rule. The conference was

3. Describe the Polish rising. How was it quelled? 4. Describe the Cretan revolt. Who supported it? What of the Suez Canal? 5. What conference was called? The result?

held at Constantinople, and during its session Russia mobilized her armies and moved them up to the Turkish frontier. The powers disagreed, the conference ended in nothing, and Russia, as champion of the oppressed Christians, declared war against Turkey (April, 1877).

6. Defence of Plevna.—The Russian armies poured into the country and the Danube was crossed with scarcely a show of resistance. Montenegro and Roumania rose, and there was talk of a Russian dress-parade to Constantinople. Benjamin Disraeli, the Conservative leader, was at the head of affairs in England. The Turks, under incompetent generals and oppressed by palace intrigues at Constantinople, seemed wholly demoralized. Suddenly Osman Pasha, a Turkish general, seized upon the rocky fortress of Plevna, in Bulgaria, and occupied it. The Russians had already passed it in neglect. The mistake was seen. The Grand Duke Constantine's march was arrested, and his army came back to take the improvised stronghold of the Turks.

7. Fall of Plevna.—A memorable siege ensued. The flower of the Russian army was hurled in vain at the earthworks defended by arms of precision. The Turks made a most stubborn and patient defence. The Russian losses were terrible, and at length General Todleben, who had defended Sebastopol, was called in. He abandoned all thoughts of taking so strong a place by assault, and a regular siege began. All attempts to relieve the place were defeated, and the garrison, at length reduced to starvation, made a desperate sortie that ended in capitulation (December 10, 1877). There was left but one effective Turkish army in the field, defending the Shipka Pass. It soon surrendered to General Gourko. The passes of

On what pretence did Russia declare war? 6. Describe the opening of the campaign. How and by whom was the Russian advance arrested? 7. Describe the siege of Plevna. How was it taken? What followed the fall of Plevna?

the Balkans had no longer defenders, and the way to Constantinople lay open.

8. Treaty of San Stefano; England's Intervention.—There was intense excitement in England. The premier took the bold plan of ordering the British fleet to protect English interests in Constantinople. This was felt to be equivalent to a declaration of war, if Russia proceeded in her conquests. The Russians had lost heavily, and their generals had shown incompetency. General Ignatieff, the Russian minister at Constantinople, concluded a hasty treaty, very favorable to Russia, with the beaten Turks at San Stefano. A contingent of Indian troops was summoned to Malta by Mr. Disraeli, now Lord Beaconsfield, and Europe saw that England was prepared to enter on a desperate war that could hardly fail to embroil the other powers (May, 1878).

9. Conference of the Powers at Berlin.—The powers did not wish to go to war. So a conference was summoned at Berlin to consider the terms of General Ignatieff's San Stefano treaty. Russia was compelled to agree. The result was a further and fatal dismemberment of the Turkish empire in Europe. Russia received a large and rich portion. Bosnia and Herzegovina were placed under the protection of Austria and compelled by force to accept the arrangement. Roumania, Servia, and Montenegro were declared free and their territory increased, as also eastern Roumelia and Bulgaria, Bulgaria being erected into a principality. By this arrangement Turkey lost eighty-three thousand three hundred square miles of territory and nearly five millions of people (July, 1878).

10. England gains Cyprus.—By a secret treaty with England Cyprus was ceded to that power, in return for which

8. What action was taken in England? What was the treaty of San Stefano?
9. How did the powers act? What was agreed on at the Berlin Conference?
What was the loss to Turkey? 10. What did England gain?

England promised to defend the sultan by force of arms against any future attempt on the part of Russia to take possession of the sultan's dominions in Asia as fixed by the treaty of Berlin; the sultan promising in return to introduce necessary reforms in his government.

11. Socialism in Russia; Assassination of Alexander II.

—The result of the war with Turkey was a grievous disappointment to the Russian people. Civil disturbances, which had been long fermenting in secret, burst out with a sudden and ferocious vigor. The war showed gross corruption, incompetency, and peculation in high places. The agitation for reform drew numbers into secret societies, the members of which called themselves *Nihilists*, or *Nothingists*, their aim being to overturn everything. Rigorous measures were taken against them and were answered by a campaign of assassination and incendiarism on their part. Many high officials fell victims, and, after various unsuccessful attempts on his life, the czar, Alexander II., was at length destroyed by an explosive bomb (March 13, 1881). He was succeeded by his son under the title of Alexander III., who continued his father's repressive policy.

SECTION IV. The new German Empire.

12. The King of Prussia made Emperor.—At Versailles, on the eve of the capitulation of Paris, the princes and representatives of the confederate German states met and agreed to merge into an empire with the King of Prussia as emperor. The power of legislation for the new empire was vested in a Parliament elected by universal suffrage. The sovereigns, retaining their former rank, were represented in a federal council. Count Bismarck, on whom

On what conditions did England gain Cyprus? 11. How did the war affect Russia? Who were the Nihilists? What befell Alexander II.? 12. On what did the German states agree at Versailles?

the title of prince was conferred, was made chancellor of the empire.

13. Persecution of the Catholics in Prussia.—One of the chancellor's first acts was to begin a persecution of the Catholics, whose prelates and priests he accused of being hostile to the new empire. The Jesuits were expelled the empire, and were soon followed by the other religious orders. Religious communities were broken up and dispersed and new laws framed (May, 1873) which made the Church completely subject to the state in all matters. These laws are known as the May Laws, and Dr. Falk, the Minister of Public Worship, was chiefly instrumental in preparing them.

14. The Centre.—The German Catholics steadfastly resisted these measures by whatever means the law left in their power. They formed a political party called the Centre, under very able leaders, and, notwithstanding all the assaults of the government, the party grew in numbers and in strength at each new election until it finally held in its hands the balance of power in the German Parliament.

15. Social Disturbances in Germany.—The war spirit over and the French milliards spent, for military purposes chiefly, dissatisfaction began to show itself with Prince Bismarck's internal policy. The pinch of poverty came to large sections of the country and was felt severely by the artisan classes, who found themselves without work, while the taxes and the armies were being constantly increased. A social agitation was set on foot. The laws against Catholics told equally against Protestants. Marriage and baptism were made civil ceremonies, with the option, should people choose, of adding the religious cere-

13. Why did Bismarck assail the Catholics? Describe the persecution and the May Laws. 14. How did the Catholics meet the persecution? 15. What agitation sprang up in Germany? Describe the effect of the May Laws.

mony. An irreligious spirit pervaded the masses of the non-Catholic people, and socialism, which aimed at the overthrow of all government, made easy way among them. Two attempts, one of which proved nearly fatal, were made on the emperor's life.

16. Bismarck and the Catholics.—Prince Bismarck soon found himself without a majority in the Parliament. This drove him to seek alliance with the Catholics (1879-1880), and negotiations were entered into with that effect in view. These negotiations became more active in 1881, when the chancellor found himself more embarrassed for a majority and the Catholics stronger than ever. The government made some approach to removing Catholic disabilities by a milder application of the May Laws and the appointment of one or two bishops to vacant sees. These signs of reconciliation were received with great disfavor by the Liberal party in Germany.

SECTION V. Austro-Hungary (1867-1881).

17. Austria having lost its supremacy in Germany at Sadowa, the emperor devoted himself to healing the internal troubles of his empire. Hungary was granted a separate legislature and home-rule, and the emperor was crowned King of Hungary at Pesth (June, 1867). A constitution was also drawn up for the western provinces of the empire, and by wise provisions and concessions grave causes of discontent were removed without threatening the integrity of the empire.

16. To whom did Bismarck turn for aid? What negotiations did he enter into? 17. What of Austria after Sadowa? What of Hungary? What of the western provinces?

CHAPTER V.

RECENT EVENTS IN ITALY, FRANCE, SPAIN, AND
THE MINOR STATES OF EUROPE.

ITALY is united into one nation under the house of Savoy. In France a new republic is set up. Queen Isabella is expelled from Spain, and after various changes of government her dynasty is restored in the person of her son Alfonso.

SECTION I. Italian Unification.

1. Events in Rome.—In June, 1867, occurred the eighteenth centenary of the martyrdom of St. Peter. To celebrate that event Pius IX. invited the entire Catholic episcopate to Rome. Five hundred and twelve bishops, with twenty thousand priests and a mighty throng of laity, obeyed the call. At a consistory held on June 26 the pope announced his intention of summoning a general council to determine on various matters that had come up for discussion since the Council of Trent.

2. Council of the Vatican (1869-1870).—The council was summoned for December 8, 1869. It lasted eight months and was attended by seven hundred and sixty-six fathers. A number of important subjects concerning Catholic doctrine, discipline, and morals were discussed, but the chief subject of deliberation was the infallibility of the pope. A minority of the fathers thought the time unseasonable for defining this doctrine. At the last session there were present five hundred and thirty-five bishops. It was then defined by the council to be a doctrine divinely revealed that when the pope teaches the universal Church *ex cathedra* he is infallible.

3. Seizure of Rome.—The council had scarcely broken

1. What happened in Rome, June, 1867? What announcement did the pope make? 2. How many attended the Council of the Vatican? What subjects were discussed? What was the chief matter defined?

up when the impending war between France and Germany burst forth. The French garrison was soon withdrawn from Rome, the Italian government pledging itself to protect the papal territory from invasion. It proceeded to do so very effectually by possessing itself of it. An Italian army appeared before Rome (September 20, 1870), and after a slight resistance opened a breach in the wall and marched in by the Porta Pia.

4. Italian Government in Rome.—A packed *plébiscite* was resorted to, and it was declared that the Roman people desired union with the rest of Italy, and the Roman territory was proclaimed part of the kingdom of Italy. The seat of the Italian government was transferred from Florence to Rome. To the pope was left the Leonine City, comprising the palace of the Vatican, the castle of St. Angelo, and the church of St. Peter. An annual income with sovereign title and rank was offered him by way of indemnity, but refused, and all intercourse between the pope and the usurping government ceased.

5. Effect on the Church of the Papal Dispossession.—The seizure of Rome only increased the devotion of the faithful towards the Holy Father all over the world, and, if possible, drew him into more direct contact with all the members of the universal Church. It was thus conspicuously made manifest that the falling away of the governments from spiritual allegiance to the Holy See, which began in the eighteenth century and was fully accomplished in the nineteenth, did not extend to the peoples. In Protestant countries especially the long pontificate of Pius IX. witnessed a wonderful growth and development of Catholic strength.

6. Accession of Leo XIII. (1878).—Pius IX., full of

3. Describe the seizure of Rome by the Italian government. 4. How did the government cover its act? What was offered to the pope? 5. What effect had the seizure of Rome on the Catholic world? Did Catholicity decline?

years and sorrows, yet with great spiritual consolations, died February 7, 1878. Victor Emmanuel died a few days before him, and was succeeded by his son, Humbert I. A conclave of the cardinals was immediately summoned, and their choice fell upon Cardinal Joachim Pecci, who assumed the title of Leo XIII. (February 20, 1878). The accession of the new pontiff was hailed with joy by the Church and received with favor by the governments. With the latter he at once assumed an attitude of conciliatory firmness, and strove with all his might to restore their good relations with the Holy See for the double benefit of the Church and the world.

SECTION II. The New French Republic.

7. The Paris Commune.—On the withdrawal of the German army from Paris the National Guard, or citizen militia, had been allowed to retain their arms. Their ranks were filled with Socialists, who determined to seize the power. A conflict between them and a few regular troops (March 18, 1871) was the signal for an outbreak. A municipal council composed of the worst element assumed authority under title of *La Commune*.

8. Thiers made Chief.—The French soldiers imprisoned in Germany were hurried back, and Marshal MacMahon was given command. Elections had been held in the first week of February. The majority of members returned to the Assembly were Legitimists and Orleanists, the chief towns returning Republicans. Adolphe Thiers, being made Chief of the Executive, appointed a Ministry and Council of the Assembly.

9. Atrocities of the Commune.—Paris put itself in a state of defence, and within reigned anarchy. An assault was

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6. What deaths occurred at this time? Who was elected pope? How was the election received? 7. What followed the withdrawal of the Germans from Paris? 8. Who was elected chief in France?

delayed for weeks with a view of avoiding bloodshed, if possible. On May 21 the French army entered the city. As they entered the Communards set fire to the Tuileries, the Hôtel de Ville, and other important public buildings. They then massacred Mgr. Darboy, the Archbishop of Paris, the rector of the Madeleine, the president of the Court of Cassation, and fifty or sixty others, priests for the most part, whom they had seized upon as hostages (May 27). That same day the army occupied the city.

10. Recovery of France.—The Assembly, sanctioned by the voice of the people, changed Thiers' title of Chief of the Executive to that of President of the French Republic. With the return of peace France again astonished the world by her extraordinary vitality. The milliards of the indemnity were paid off with surprising rapidity. The final payments were made in 1873, and France was evacuated by the German armies in September. In January of the same year Napoleon III. died at the village of Chiselhurst, England, where he had taken up his abode, and the leadership of the Bonapartist party fell to his young son, Louis.

11. Fight of Factions in France.—Factions in France began again to fight for supremacy. The Legitimists, who formed the strongest party in the Assembly, made a movement to restore royalty in the person of Henry, Count of Chambord, the grandson of Charles X., whom they recognized as heir of the house of Bourbon. But the scheme was frustrated as much from dissensions within as from opposition without the party, and their prospects continued steadily to decline. The hopes of the Bonapartists were shattered by the death of Prince Louis Napoleon in an English expedition against the Zulus of

9. Tell of the Commune and its acts. 10. What title was bestowed on Thiers? How did France recover? Where did Napoleon III. die? 11. Describe the fight of factions in France.

Africa. In his will he bequeathed his claims of succession to his cousin Victor, son of Prince Jerome Napoleon; but the latter claimed them for himself and thus widened the breach in the shattered Bonapartist ranks.

12. Republican Success in France.—Thiers constantly awed the Assembly with threats of resignation when they opposed his will. To his surprise his resignation was at last accepted and Marshal MacMahon elected president in his place (August, 1873). MacMahon held the post with honor and distinction, and refused to make himself a party to the royalist schemes. The Republicans, under the leadership of Gambetta, made rapid advances, and at the general elections of December, 1875, gained a decided majority.

13. Persecution of the Religious Orders.—Finding his views opposed to the majority, MacMahon resigned (1878), and M. Grévy, a Republican, was chosen in his place. Gambetta from the outset showed a bitterly anti-Catholic policy, declaring “clericalism” to be the enemy of France. The Catholic teaching orders were removed from public education (1879), and the Jesuits expelled and dissolved as a religious body in France (May 30, 1880).

14. Gambetta in Power.—On the other hand, amnesty was granted to the Communards who had been exiled for the part they had taken in the crimes of the Commune, and they were welcomed back to France with great demonstrations of delight by their supporters. In the early part of 1881 the French government organized an expedition against Tunis, which soon developed into a war of conquest in North Africa and caused much ill-feeling against France in Italy and England. Gambetta, under the shadow of President Grévy’s name, exercised the chief power in France. After the elections of October, 1881,

What of Prince Louis Napoleon? 12. Who succeeded Thiers? 13. Who succeeded MacMahon? What new policy came in? 14. Sketch events up to the fall of Gambetta.

he was called on to form a cabinet and assume responsibility for the power he wielded, but the cabinet soon collapsed and Gambetta was succeeded by De Freycinet.

SECTION III. Spain (1868-1881).

15. Isabella dethroned.—Isabella II. (1833-1868) was called to the Spanish throne when a minor. The power thenceforth became an object of ambition for military adventurers, and the country suffered from a succession of bad governments. A revolt organized by Generals Prim and Serrano, with Admiral Topete (September, 1868), succeeded in expelling Isabella, and a provisional government was declared with Serrano as president, Prim at the head of the army, and Topete in command of the navy. The queen was deposed, the Jesuits were expelled and religious communities dissolved in Spain.

16. Insurrections; a new Ministry.—The Cortes decided on a royal government. Insurrections broke out in Jerez, Cadiz, Malaga, and other places, but were sternly repressed. Elections by universal suffrage were ordered for a Cortes, or parliament, to determine the form of government. A strong monarchical majority was returned and Prim made Prime Minister and Minister of War, Serrano being appointed regent.

17. Election of Amadeus; Carlist Rising.—Prim sought a king, and, failing in Prince Leopold of Hohenzollern, offered the crown to Prince Amadeus, Duke of Aosta, second son of Victor Emmanuel. He was elected over bitter opposition in the Cortes (November 16, 1870). A few hours before he landed Prim was assassinated in Madrid. The Cubans rose in revolt against the home gov-

15. How fared Spain under Isabella II.? By whom was Isabella expelled?
16. What followed the expulsion? 17. Who was elected king? How was Amadeus welcomed?

ernment, and the Carlists rose in the north in favor of Don Carlos.

18. Proclamation of a Republic (1872).—Amadeus abdicated and left the country. A republic was then proclaimed. There were more risings in various cities and fearful atrocities committed by the socialists, or *Intransigentes*. Emilio Castelar, the most brilliant of the republican orators, was made dictator. The suppressed Carlist insurrection broke out more strongly than before (February, 1873). Everything was in confusion. The army was becoming demoralized. Castelar suspended the sessions of the Cortes for three months, and on their re-assembling (January 2, 1874) they refused a vote of confidence in him, whereupon General Pavia turned them out of doors and appointed a provisional government with Serrano at the head.

19. Recall of Prince Alfonso.—The republican insurrections were speedily suppressed. The Carlists were by this time extremely formidable and defeated the government forces in several important engagements. At the beginning of 1875 Generals Martinez Campos and Primo di Rivera proclaimed Prince Alfonso, son of the exiled Isabella, king, with the title of Alfonso XII. The nation approved the act. Alfonso landed. The Carlist insurrection was soon crushed. The liberties of the Church were in some measure restored and peace settled down again on the land.

SECTION IV. Minor States of Europe.

20. Sweden and Norway.—After the eighteenth century Sweden and Norway continued to decline as powers, but the people were prosperous and peaceful under a milder

18. What became of Amadeus? What followed the proclamation of a republic? How were the Cortes treated? 19. What of the Carlists? Who was called to the throne?

rule. In 1865 religious liberty was granted and Catholics were allowed equal political rights with other citizens.

21. Belgium and Holland.—The Duchy of Brabant had long been subject to Austria previous to the Napoleonic wars. By the treaties of 1815 it was united to Holland under the name of the Kingdom of the Netherlands, and the Prince of Orange made king. The union was not pleasing to the Belgians, who differed from the Hollanders in religion and race. In 1830 an insurrection broke out, and the duchy now known as Belgium achieved its independence. Prince Leopold of Saxe-Coburg was chosen king, and proved a very wise one. At his death he was succeeded by his son, Leopold II. (1865). The little kingdom has rapidly increased in prosperity and population.

22. Denmark and Portugal.—Denmark suffered severely in the war with Prussia and Austria, and lost the duchies of Schleswig and Holstein. It has since been at peace. Portugal, since the erection of Brazil into an independent empire (1826), devoted itself wholly to internal affairs and has almost passed out of the general current of European events.

CHAPTER VI.

THE BRITISH EMPIRE (1848-1881).

AFTER the Crimean War England for a number of years took no active part in European politics. A revolt of the natives in India was put down. Ill government in Ireland produced a chronic state of disaffection and misery.

SECTION I. The Indian Mutiny.

1. England in India.—Clive's conquest over Surajah Dowlah at Plassey (June 23, 1757) secured the English

20. What of Sweden and Norway? 21. What was the kingdom of the Netherlands? Why did Belgium separate? Who was elected king of Belgium? 22. What of Denmark and Portugal?

domination in Bengal with its population of thirty millions and enormous natural wealth. It took England a long time to realize the worth of its conquest. The government of this vast empire was entrusted to a trading association, the British East India Company.

2. Wellesley Governor-General.—The conquest of Bengal was followed by others, and the responsibilities of the company assumed an imperial character. In 1784 Pitt introduced a bill into the English Parliament leaving the general management of Indian affairs to the company, but transferring to the crown the final control by appointing a board to supervise the civil and military government of India. In 1798 the Marquis of Wellesley was sent out as governor-general. He remained seven years. During his administration considerable additions were made to the British dominions there. When he left British India it had a population of seventy-five millions of people. The British force was only twenty thousand, but the natives had constant wars among themselves.

3. The Khyber Pass.—Burmah was conquered in 1824 and a portion of its territory annexed. The English next entered Afghanistan, deposed the ruler (1842), and set up another in his place, leaving a British resident in the capital, Cabul, to assist him in the government. As the troops retired the Afghans rose and cut them to pieces in the Khyber Pass. Only one man of the four thousand British escaped to tell the story of the massacre. A British force returned, took Cabul, inflicted vengeance, and then retired.

4. Further Conquests in India.—Scinde rose, but was conquered and annexed by Sir Charles Napier (1843). The Sikhs opposed the British advance, but, after a most

1. How was Bengal won to England? To whom was the government entrusted? 2. Sketch English progress in India up to 1842. 3. What happened in Afghanistan? 4. By whom was Scinde annexed?

gallant struggle for independence, were compelled to succumb to General Gough (February, 1849) and their country, the Punjab, was added to the British dominions. In 1856 Oude fell, and England's Indian possessions now represented a territory as large as Europe with Russia thrown out, a native subject population of one hundred and ninety millions, exclusive of a number of tributary states representing fifty millions.

5. Causes of the Revolt in India.—The government of this vast domain and number of divided nationalities was wretchedly bad, and the discontent of the natives found vent in a formidable insurrection which broke out in 1857. The British forces were under fifty thousand men, supported by a Sepoy force, in great part officered by natives, of two hundred and fifty thousand. The authorities, disregarding the warnings they had received, found themselves quite unprepared to deal with such a movement.

6. Quelling of the Revolt.—The revolt spread with great rapidity, Nana Sahib, the heir of a dispossessed prince, becoming the leader. The Sepoys turned their arms against the British officers. Nana Sahib took Cawnpore, put the garrison to the sword, and on the approach of General Havelock massacred the women and children (July 16, 1857). Havelock recaptured the city and marched to the relief of Lucknow, the capital of Oude, which a small British garrison held against an army of Sepoys. Cutting his way in, he maintained the siege until the arrival of Sir Colin Campbell with reinforcements from England (March, 1858).

7. On the arrival of reinforcements Delhi, Lucknow, and Gwalior, the chief Indian strongholds, fell in rapid succession, and the revolt was practically ended. The con-

Who conquered the Sikhs? How large was British India in 1856? 5. What occasioned the Indian outbreak? 6. Who led the revolt? Describe the progress of the revolt. 7. How was the revolt quelled?

test was marked by a display of savage cruelty and reprisal on both sides. At the close the East India Company was abolished as a governing authority and the government transferred to the crown under a responsible minister. In 1878 the Queen of England was, under Mr. Disraeli's advice, proclaimed Empress of India.

SECTION II. Irish Disturbances (1854-1881).

8. Condition of Ireland.—The condition of Ireland after the famine years continued deplorable. The tenants were absolutely at the mercy of the landlords, many of whom lived out of the country and cared only for the revenue their estates yielded them. The spirit of disaffection deepened and was fostered by the Irish who had emigrated to the United States.

9. Fenian Insurrection.—An Irish society, calling itself the Fenian Brotherhood, was organized in the United States in 1858 and soon attained to large dimensions. Many of its members took part in the civil war. The society had gained many proselytes in Ireland, and at the close of the civil war some of the disbanded soldiers drifted back into Ireland to foment a proposed armed insurrection, of which the English government had complete knowledge. A scattered rising occurred in 1865 and extended into 1867, but at no time did it attain to national proportions. The courage and self-sacrifice of many who were engaged in it compensated for the treachery of others, and its near approach to being extremely formidable aroused a feeling of apprehension in England.

10. Measures of Relief; Disestablishment of the Irish Church; the Land Act of 1870.—Public attention in England was drawn to Irish affairs and to the wretched con-

What was Queen Victoria proclaimed? 8. Describe the condition of Ireland after the famine. 9. Who were the Fenians and where did they organize? Describe the Fenian rising. What effect had it on England?

dition of the country. Mr. Gladstone, leader of the Liberal party, struck at one of the Irish grievances and moved the disestablishment of the Anglican Church in Ireland, which was a standing imposition. After intense opposition the measure passed (1869). Mr. Gladstone next moved an Irish Land Act (1870), with the design of reforming the Irish land laws so as to allow the Irish tenant some measure of protection against the landlord. Again after intense opposition the act was passed. It proved a wholly inadequate measure. An attempt to settle the educational difficulty in Ireland led to the fall of the Gladstone government (1874).

11. Agitation for Home Rule in Ireland.—The Disestablishment Bill and the Land Act wrought a better feeling among the Irish people, and agitation for reform passed into a peaceful channel. A party, under the lead of Isaac Butt, arose to advocate home rule, or Irish control of Irish affairs, and soon developed extraordinary strength. On the death of Butt the actual leadership passed into the hands of Charles Stewart Parnell, who immediately fastened on the land question, which had only been touched by Mr. Gladstone's act of 1870. A famine (1879-1880) drew the attention of the world to the wretched condition of the Irish people.

12. Coercion in Ireland and a New Land Act.—Lord Beaconsfield's government was overthrown in 1880 and Mr. Gladstone returned to power. He again took up the land question in Ireland, but his first measure was thrown out by the House of Lords. The Irish people were deeply exasperated, and a Land League was formed against the existing system of land laws. The League became so formidable that the government introduced a Coercion Bill

10. What measures did Mr. Gladstone carry? 11. What effect had these measures on Ireland? What of the Home Rule party? 12. What new measure did Gladstone propose? What was the Land League?

(1881) to put a stop to it. After the passing of the Coercion Bill Mr. Gladstone introduced his new Land Bill, which proved to be a large extension of his earlier measure. But he almost nullified whatever good there lay in it by seizing and imprisoning, without attempt at trial, Mr. Parnell and the leaders of the Land League. Liberty of the person, liberty of the press, and liberty of speech for the time being did not exist in Ireland save among supporters of the government.

13. England's Minor Wars.—Since the Crimean War England engaged in no European struggle. It was engaged in various wars from time to time on a small scale in Africa and Asia, in Abyssinia, Ashantee, South Africa, Afghanistan. In some of these contests British arms met with reverses, though they conquered in the end. They had great difficulty in overcoming Cetewayo, King of the Zulus. In this struggle Prince Louis Napoleon lost his life. Later on the Boers maintained their independence gallantly and destroyed General Colley's command (1881). In Afghanistan the story of the massacre of Cabul was repeated in the death of Sir Louis Cavagnari, the British resident, slain by a rising of the populace after the departure of the British soldiery. Marching back under Sir Frederick Roberts, they took Cabul, defeated the insurgents on every side, and avenged a severe loss inflicted on the British arms by Ayoo Khan near Candahar. They then abandoned the country, after placing Abdurrahman Khan on the throne.

What of the Coercion Bill and its results? 13. In what minor wars was England engaged? Where did she suffer reverses? What of the Boers? What happened in Afghanistan? Who was put on the throne?

CHAPTER VII.

THE UNITED STATES SINCE THE MEXICAN WAR.

THE arrival of large numbers of emigrants from Europe and the discovery of gold in California gave a new impetus to the settlement of the West. The dispute about slavery brought on a civil war. The war tested the strength of the republic, and made its resources known to the world; at the close of the war the republic took front rank among the great powers, though standing aloof from their complications.

1. Causes of the Civil War in the United States.—The disputes between the Northern and Southern States on questions of tariff and of slavery deepened in intensity. During the Presidency of James Buchanan (1857-1861) John Brown, an anti-slavery enthusiast, sought to raise an insurrection among the slaves of Virginia, and liberate them by force. The movement failed, and Brown was hanged (December 2, 1859) by the Virginia authorities.

2. The question of slavery became the next Presidential issue, there being now fifteen slave States opposed to eighteen free. Abraham Lincoln received the votes of all the free States, save three from New Jersey. His opponents being divided, he was elected (1860).

3. Secession of the Southern States (1861).—The Southern States seceded from the Union, South Carolina being the first, and formed a Confederacy of their own under the title of the Confederate States of America (February 4, 1861). A constitution was adopted and an independent government organized. Jefferson Davis was made President.

4. Beginning of the Civil War.—Fort Sumter, the fede-

1. What of John Brown and his movement? 2. How were the States divided on the slavery question? Who was elected President? 3. What action did the Southern States take? Whom did they choose as President?

ral fort in Charleston harbor, garrisoned by United States troops, was bombarded by the Confederates and taken (April 14). This was the signal for war, and the North rose in defence of the Union. A blockade of the Southern ports was proclaimed and the war began in earnest.

5. Early Battles of the War.—The first important engagement was at Bull Run, about thirty miles from Washington, and the Union army was defeated (July 21, 1861). The Confederates held the line of the Mississippi River from the Gulf of Mexico to the southern boundary of Kentucky, and a chain of strong positions extending thence to the northeast corner of Virginia. It became the object of the North to break up and penetrate this line and open the Mississippi River.

6. Operations in the West.—In the beginning of 1862 the Federals gained some important successes in the West. Kentucky and most of Tennessee were lost to the South, and General Grant began to come to the front. He was beaten at Shiloh (April 6), but, by the timely arrival of reinforcements, was enabled to retrieve his disaster, when he gained a brilliant victory. Other victories followed, and the Confederates were driven from Missouri.

7. New Orleans captured.—An attack on Vicksburg was repulsed by the Confederates (December). But Admiral Farragut and a large fleet, in conjunction with General Butler at the head of an army of fifteen thousand men, had been forcing his way up the Mississippi from the gulf. The important city of New Orleans was taken and occupied by General Butler (May 1, 1862).

8. McClellan's Repulse at Richmond.—In Virginia the Federals were also victorious in the spring of the year. But General Banks suffered a severe defeat at the hands

4. Tell of the bombardment of Fort Sumter. What followed? 5. What happened at Bull Run? What did the Confederates now hold? 6. What happened at Shiloh and after? 7. How was New Orleans captured?

of General "Stonewall" Jackson. General McClellan, who was chief in command of the Northern forces, advanced on Richmond, the Southern capital, but was repulsed and driven back after desperate fighting. General Robert E. Lee was now chief in command of the South. Richmond being free, Lee boldly invaded the North.

9. Antietam and Fredericksburg.—The invasion was checked at the bloody battle of Antietam (September 17, 1862), which was indecisive in its results, save that Lee withdrew after it. Burnside now superseded McClellan in command of the North. He distinguished himself by meeting with a terrible defeat at Fredericksburg from Lee.

10. Emancipation of the Slaves (1863); Chancellorsville.—In the following year (1863) President Lincoln proclaimed the emancipation of the slaves in all the States. Hooker superseded Burnside, only to be defeated at Chancellorsville (May 2 and 3), where, however, the Confederates lost their gallant general, Stonewall Jackson. Lee again invaded the North, and, advancing into Pennsylvania, threatened Washington. Hooker resigned and Meade took command.

11. Battle of Gettysburg.—Meade met Lee at Gettysburg (July 1). General Hancock's courage and skill alone saved the day from being disastrous to the North. The battle was renewed on the two following days and contested with desperate valor on both sides, but ended in a victory for the North. It was the turning-point of the war, and the South never recovered from its effects.

12. General Grant appointed to the chief Command.—Lee again retreated, and on the very day of his retreat Grant captured Vicksburg, the great Confederate strong-

8. What of Banks and McClellan? Who commanded the South? 9. What happened at Antietam and Fredericksburg? 10. What proclamation did the President make? What happened at Chancellorsville? 11. What at Gettysburg?

hold of the West (July 4), and an army of twenty-seven thousand men surrendered. The whole of the Mississippi was now in the hands of the Union; the Confederacy was cut in two, and the South began to feel exhaustion. Grant followed up his victory with others, and on March 12, 1864, was appointed general-in-chief of all the armies of the United States. He at once brought all his generals to work in concert.

13. Battles before Richmond.—Lee's army became Grant's objective point of attack. The Confederacy lived in it and Grant resolved on crushing it. His forces were vastly superior in point of numbers, and he had limitless resources at his back, while the Southern supplies were being cut off and its armies used up. Lee's knowledge of the country and superior generalship enabled him to inflict terrible losses on the Northern armies. In the battles from May to October Grant lost a hundred thousand men to Lee's forty thousand; but the circle gradually closed in on the Southern general, and he was slowly driven back on Richmond.

14. Sheridan defeats Early; Sherman's March to the Sea.—In September and October General Sheridan distinguished himself against the Southern general, Early, whom he defeated and drove from the Shenandoah Valley, destroying the crops and carrying off the cattle. Meanwhile General Sherman had successfully made his way to the city of Atlanta, Georgia, which was the chief manufactory of military supplies for the South. Capturing the city (September 2), he then disappeared with his army. Nothing was heard of him for four weeks, when he suddenly appeared before Savannah, which was evacuated at his approach (December 20). Resting his army a month,

12. Tell of Grant's victories in the West. To what was Grant appointed? 13. What was Grant's object? Describe the battles before Richmond. 14. Tell of Sheridan's raid. Describe Sherman's march to the sea.

he then turned north to join Grant. He had isolated Lee and broken whatever spirit was left in the South.

15. Fall of Richmond.—Lee was at Petersburg facing Grant. Johnston, in North Carolina, was the only other Southern general now in the field. An attempt by Lee to cut his way through Grant's line and join Johnston was repulsed. Petersburg was taken on April 3, and Grant entered Richmond the same day.

16. Surrender of Lee.—Lee retreated to Lynchburg, Grant pursuing. There was now no escape from the circle of the Union armies, and, seeing further resistance useless, Lee surrendered to Grant at Appomattox (April 9, 1865). On April 26 Johnston surrendered to Sherman, and the most gigantic civil war that the world had ever witnessed was over.

17. England during the War.—The general sympathy of the European powers was with the Confederacy. England was especially active in the South's behalf and aided greatly in maintaining the struggle. This produced much ill-feeling between the two countries. The government of the United States maintained that Great Britain owed compensation for injury wrought by her acts. England refused to admit any liability. After long discussion the claim was finally submitted to international arbitration at Geneva, Switzerland, when the court decided that Great Britain was liable to the extent of fifteen and a half million dollars. The amount was paid.

18. Assassination of Lincoln.—Lincoln was elected for a second term; and while the country was rejoicing over the fall of Richmond the President was assassinated (April 14, 1865) at Ford's Theatre in Washington by J. Wilkes Booth, an actor. Booth was afterwards shot while

15. Tell of the fall of Richmond. 16. Tell of Lee's and Johnston's surrender. 17. How did England act during the war? How was the United States' claim settled? 18. Describe the assassination of Lincoln.

resisting arrest. The Vice-President, Andrew Johnson, immediately assumed the Presidency.

19. The War Debts.—At the close of the war the Federal armies numbered a million men, six hundred thousand of whom were in active service. The losses on both sides had been enormous, as were also the debts. The Southern debt was wiped out by failure, the bonds and notes of the Confederacy becoming worthless. The North owed \$2,750,000,000. The country set to work to pay this enormous sum with astonishing success, and by 1880 the paper notes were on a par with gold.

20. Results of the War.—The war was a terrible calamity, but it manifested to the world the strength and coherency of the republic, the bravery, patriotism, and self-sacrifice of its people, as well as its practically unlimited resources. The power of the democracy was shown in something higher than destruction, and the effect on other peoples was great. The United States became more than ever the field for foreign immigration, and by 1880 the population had increased to 50,155,783 from the three millions of a century before.

21. Negro Suffrage; Reconstruction.—The armies dissolved and the soldiers went peaceably back to their various civil avocations. The colored people were admitted to the right of suffrage. The question of restoring the State governments came up, and brought on a dispute between President Johnson and Congress. This resulted in the President's impeachment by the House of Representatives, but after a long debate and trial he was acquitted.

22. Grant President; the Centennial; Electoral Commission.—In 1868 General Grant was elected President and served two terms. In 1876 the United States celebrated

19. What debts were incurred by the war? 20. What effect had the war at home and abroad? 21. What became of the armies? What of the colored people? Why was Johnson impeached?

the centenary of their independence, and a great international exhibition was held in Philadelphia. The Presidential elections were held in the same year. The contest was extremely close and exciting, and the result was a matter of dispute. Both candidates, Rutherford B. Hayes, the Republican, and Samuel J. Tilden, the Democratic choice, were declared elected by their respective parties. An Electoral Commission was appointed to decide on the returns, and the decision, by a majority of one, was given in favor of Hayes. The country accepted the decision.

23. Garfield President; his Assassination; Arthur President.—A strong attempt was made to nominate General Grant for a third term in 1880, but it was defeated, and General Garfield was chosen as the Republican candidate, his Democratic opponent being General Hancock. General Garfield was elected. He was shot at Washington by Charles Guiteau, a disappointed applicant for office, on the morning of July 2, 1881, and, after lingering in great agony, died (September 19). The shooting of the President created a feeling of universal horror and sympathy. On his death Chester A. Arthur, the Vice-President, succeeded to the Presidency. On June 30, 1882, Guiteau was hanged.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE AMERICAN CONTINENT.

1. Natural Divisions.—The whole American continent has three great divisions: North America, Central America, and South America. North America consists of

22. Who succeeded Johnson? For how many terms? What was celebrated in 1876? What dispute arose about the Presidency? 23. Who succeeded Hayes? What befell Garfield?

British America, Mexico, and the United States, with a population of between sixty and seventy millions. Central America comprises the states of Costa Rica, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, and San Salvador, which, since 1863, have formed a union under the name of the States of Central America. They lie within the tropics, and their population is about three millions. South America, which covers an area nearly as large as that of North America, consists of the states of Venezuela, the United States of Colombia, the Empire of Brazil, Uruguay, Paraguay, Bolivia, the Argentine Confederation, Patagonia, Ecuador, Peru, and Chili. The united population of these states is about thirty millions, Brazil being by far the largest and most important.

2. Revolt of the European Colonies.—From the discoveries by Columbus and his successors down to the close of the last century the entire American continent lay under European dominion. In 1770 three European nations held the whole—England, which laid claim to all North America, save Mexico; Spain, which held Mexico, all Central and South America, save Brazil; Brazil belonged to Portugal. In 1775 there began a series of revolts which within half a century shook off the European yoke, save that of Great Britain in Canada.

SECTION I. Canada.

3. Canada under British Rule.—Canada was retained to Great Britain by wise concessions on the part of the home government. Ceded by France to England in 1763, freedom of religion was secured to the French colonists, and equal civil and commercial privileges with British subjects were guaranteed. These privileges were increased by the

1. Give the divisions of the American continent. What do the divisions comprise in area and population? 2. What nations held the American continent? When did the revolts begin? 3. How was Canada retained?

"Quebec Act" of 1774. In 1791 local self-government was granted. The governor and council, appointed by the crown, were superseded by a legislature elected by the colonists.

4. The Dominion of Canada.—There was a natural division known as Upper and Lower Canada, the latter peopled chiefly by persons of French and the former by persons of British descent. They formed two separate provinces. The position of Lower Canada gave it control over the exports and imports of the country. To obviate this a legislative union between the two provinces was formed in 1841 by which the control over general interests was transferred to the majority of the people. There were jealousies of race and religion, and a legislative union of the British-American colonies was formed, allowing to each province its local self-government. In 1867 was passed "the British North American Act," which established a confederation of the whole of British North America under the name of the Dominion of Canada. The constitution of the Dominion is based on that of Great Britain. The legislature consists of an Upper House, or Senate, of life-members, and a House of Commons, with a governor-general and council under the executive authority of the British crown. The population of the Dominion is nearly four millions and a half, while the territory is almost equal in extent to the whole of Europe.

SECTION II. Mexico.

5. Local Divisions in Mexico.—Mexico, conquered by Cortez in 1521, was called New Spain, and Cortez was made its governor. The natives were enslaved by the conquerors and made to till the soil and labor in the mines.

4. How was Canada divided? What disputes arose between Upper and Lower Canada? What was the British North American Act? Describe the constitution of the Dominion.

The country was governed by sixty-four successive viceroys down to 1821. As in all the Spanish-American colonies, the population was divided into four classes: the Spaniards of European birth, who held and exercised all the power and offices of government; the Creoles, or pure-blooded descendants of Spanish settlers; the half-breeds, of mixed Spanish and Indian blood; and the pure-blooded Indians. The Creoles rapidly increased in numbers. Their discontent at being shut out from all posts of distinction in the government and in the army grew with their numbers.

6. Revolt of the Mexicans.—The seizure of the Spanish throne by Napoleon created great disturbance in Mexico. This was increased by the subsequent imprisonment of the viceroy for suspected ambitious designs (September 16, 1808). In 1810 a revolt, headed by Don Miguel Hidalgo, a priest, broke out. Hidalgo was betrayed and shot (1811), but the revolt was continued by Morelos, another priest. Morelos convened a national congress at Chilpanzingo (September, 1813), which declared Mexico independent, and in the following year drew up the first Mexican constitution. Morelos was taken and executed in 1815, and the struggle became a guerrilla war.

7. Iturbide Emperor.—A revolution in Spain gave opportunity for a new outbreak, and Don Agustin Iturbide, a Mexican colonel, assumed the lead. He declared Mexico independent (February 24, 1821). In a few months the whole country, with the exception of the capital, recognized his authority. By the treaty of Cordova (August 24) the viceroy, Don Juan O'Donohoe, ceded possession of the country. A regency was established with Iturbide at the head, O'Donohoe being one of the mem-

5. How was Mexico governed? What caused discontent? 6. Who headed the first revolt? Tell of subsequent revolts. 7. What of Iturbide? What title was bestowed on Iturbide?

bers. On May 19, 1822, Iturbide was proclaimed Emperor of Mexico under the title of Agustin I.

8. Proclamation of the Republic.—In December, 1822, Santa Anna and other chiefs proclaimed the republic at Vera Cruz. Iturbide abdicated and went to England. A congress assembled and drew up a constitution (October 4, 1824) resembling that of the United States, General Victoria being first president, and General Bravo vice-president. Iturbide, venturing back, was taken and shot.

9. Series of Revolts.—There soon ensued a long and bloody series of revolts stirred up by rival candidates for the presidency. In these Santa Anna largely figured. The government of the United States recognized the Mexican Republic in 1829. An attempt of Spain to regain her lost power failed. The Church property was confiscated and the convents were suppressed. In 1835 the states were converted into a consolidated republic, with Santa Anna at the head. The refusal of Texas to join the centralized government led to a long war that finally reached to the United States and resulted in the annexation of Texas by the latter power and the cession to it of California and New Mexico (1848). The internal conflicts continued in Mexico down to 1861, when Benito Juarez was elected president.

10. French Expedition into Mexico.—Juarez's disregard for the existing agreements with the European governments led to a convention at London (1861) of the English, French, and Spanish powers. It was resolved to enforce the agreements on the Mexican government. But England and Spain soon withdrew, leaving the French emperor, Napoleon III., to carry out the expedition alone. A French force landed in Mexico, and the capital was

8. By whom was the republic proclaimed? What followed the proclamation?
9. What now ensued? Describe events down to the election of Juarez. 10. Tell of the London convention.

soon in their hands (1863). An assembly of certain Mexican notables met and declared for an imperial government. At the instance of Napoleon III., and by invitation of the Mexican party opposed to Juarez, the Archduke Maximilian of Austria accepted the proffered crown of Mexico. He was supported by the French army, and Juarez was completely defeated. But dissensions broke out among Maximilian's followers, and the United States remonstrated at foreign interference on American soil. The French troops were withdrawn (1867). Juarez speedily regained his lost ground, and Maximilian, betrayed and captured at Queretaro, was shot (June 19, 1867). Juarez, elected a second time, held the power until his death (July 18, 1872). Since his death the elections have proceeded regularly.

SECTION III. Brazil.

11. Brazil under Portuguese Rule.—Brazil, discovered by Cabral in 1500, occupies more than two-fifths of the South American continent and has a population to-day of about nine millions. After Cabral came Amerigo Vespucci, whose explorations gave the name to the whole continent. Portuguese colonies were established, towns were built along the coast, and a profitable trade was opened up. The annexation of Portugal to Spain under Philip II. (1580) exposed the colonists to the incursions of the French, English, and Dutch, but the Portuguese finally overcame them all (1654). After John IV. had resumed the Portuguese throne Brazil was erected into a principality and the title of Prince of Brazil bestowed on the heir to the throne (1640).

12. Separation of Brazil from Portugal.—When John

What of the French expedition? Who was offered the crown? What befell Maximilian? 11. Describe Brazil, its people, and its struggles. Into what was Brazil erected?

VI. fled from Portugal to Brazil the restrictions on commerce were removed and the laws for the colonies greatly improved. After the fall of Napoleon Brazil was made a kingdom, John VI. taking the title of King of Portugal, Algarve, and Brazil. On February 26, 1821, the Brazilians were granted their own constitution. John returned to Portugal, leaving his son Dom Pedro as regent of Brazil. A revolution broke out and Brazil was declared an independent empire, with Dom Pedro as emperor (October 12, 1822). The independence was acknowledged by the Portuguese government on September 7, 1825. In the following year John VI. died and Dom Pedro became heir to the throne of Portugal. He sent thither his infant daughter, Doña Maria da Gloria. In consequence of disputes between himself and the Chamber of Deputies he was compelled to abdicate in favor of his son Pedro, a lad of six years (April 7, 1831). The country was governed by a regency up to July 18, 1841, when the young emperor was crowned. A series of revolts occurred, but they were finally quelled in 1849, and the emperor continued to reign in peace.

SECTION IV. Other States of Central and South America.

13. The history of the various states of Central and South America, previous to and after their struggle for independence, is to a large extent a repetition of that of Mexico. With the exception of Patagonia, which is inhabited by a savage race, and the empire of Brazil, the government of the states is republican in form. They have witnessed many revolutions, and have sometimes warred on each other. But with the increase of Euro-

12. What happened under John VI.? What followed the departure of John VI.? Sketch events down to accession of Pedro II. 13. What of other Central and South American states?

pean immigration and the growth of foreign commerce a better feeling is growing up and a more prosperous future setting in. The religion of all Central and South America is Roman Catholic; but the Church in those regions is subject to grievous persecutions. The secret society of Freemasons is very strong and chiefly instrumental in promoting the persecutions.

What is the future prospect of these states? How is the Catholic Church treated in those regions? Who is chiefly responsible for the persecutions?

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